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ABSTRACT

The following are the papers presented at a research-to-practice conference: "Influence of Age on Students Perceptions of College Experience" (Bishop-Clark, Lynch); "Impact of Education on Adult Students" (Cupp); "Identifying Critical Factors of Quality" (Lund, Brown); "It's Never Too Late" (Rosenberg et al.); "Adult Vocational Student Dropout and Retention in Occupational Training Programs" (Shank); "National Perspective of Computer Competencies for Administrators of Adult Basic Education Programs" (Bothel); "Personnel Evaluation in Adult Education" (McElhinney); "Attitudes about Continuing Education among Kansas Long-Term Care Registered Nurses" (Sanders); "Leadership Practices of Mega-Church Pastors" (Zook); "Factors Related to Recruitment and Retention of Ethnic Minority Youth in Ohio 4-H Program" (Bankstone, Cano); "Executive Women in Business in United States" (Bierema); "Facilitating Professional Ethical Development" (Ellis, McElhinney); "Intergenerational Equity and Its Meaning to Adult Education" (Holt, Cseh); "Internationalizing Extension Curriculum" (Ludwig); "Adult Education and Feminist Phase Theory" (Sattem); "Issues Programming Training Needs of Ohio State University Extension Faculty" (Conklin); "Up from Ashes" (Laswell); "Involving Workers in Workplace Literacy" (Pritz, Imel); "Life in Classroom" (Courtney et al.); "Doing Something to Help" (Dirkx, Fonfara); "Dropout and Return" (Fisher); "Evaluation of Adult Literacy Small Group/Collaborative Tutor Training Model" (Freer, Enoch); "Doing Something about Dropout" (Jha, Dirkx); "Adult Literacy Assessment" (Turner); "Improving Parent Education Capacity" (Adekunle-Wilson, Martin); "Program Planning in Fourth Dimension" (Boer, Ellis); "Interests, Power, and Responsibility in Adult Education Program Planning" (Wilson, Cervero); "Organizational Values of Ohio State University Extension" (Conklin et al.); "In Eye of Beholder" (Laswell, Dirkx); "User Fees in Extension System" (Penrose, Rohrer); "Efficacy of Innovation Adoption Diffusion Theory in Adult Education" (Rollins); "Fostering Adoption of Innovation and Change in Adult Education Practice"

(Turner, Dirkx); "Effective Techniques/Methods for Conference Presentations" (Henschke); "Research-to-Practice in Positivistic Community" (Miller); "Using Research to Create Linkages between Organizations" (Sandmann); "Attempt at Critical Ethnography" (Shore); "Development of Learning Skills for the Non-Traditional Adult" (Becker); "Trade-Offs" (Burkhart-Kriesel); "Health Competence and Learner Self-Directedness" (Frank); "Incidental Learning by Adults in Nontraditional Degree Program" (Mealman); "Teaching for Higher Level Cognition in Adult Education Programs" (Miller); "Ethnographic Action Research Study" (Pike); and "Informal and Incidental Learning in Community Problem Solving" (Taylor). (MN)

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ED 362 663

Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

A Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

October 13-15, 1993

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Edited by
Kevin Freer
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
and
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Indiana, Pennsylvania

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Proceedings
of the

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

Edited by
Kevin Freer
and
Gary Dean

Published at
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
October 1993

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1993 PROCEEDINGS
are available from:

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Columbus, Ohio 43210

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INTRODUCTION

We are pleased to present the Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference. The conference Proceedings provide an opportunity for educators to share research findings that focus on the link between research and practice in adult, continuing and community education. The idea of organizing a regional conference in the Midwest has been to encourage attendance through the low cost and availability to a wide audience of adult, continuing, and community educators, including graduate students. The Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference long offered the opportunity for students to present their research; indeed, fully one-third of the papers are student generated.

The conference serves as a forum for educators to share work in empirical and conceptual bases that link theory and practice. Practitioners attending this conference become informed by theory and in turn, inform others by participating in the on-going dialogue. These Proceedings are printed and distributed at the beginning of the conference in order to allow participants to preview presentations and to dialogue among those working in various fields of adult, continuing, and community education. Through this forum, the conference achieves its further purpose of providing a greater realization of a more humane society and facilitating personal actualization for consumers of adult, continuing, and community education programs.

RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Several trends regarding the theory-to-practice dynamic in adult, continuing, and community education can be observed. First, research has largely been driven by practice. That is, research has been seen as a means of generating knowledge to solve practitioner related problems. Recently this trend has been changing with increased basic and theory-based research studies. Second, naturalistic inquiry has become increasingly popular as a means of conducting research in the field. Third, the issues identified for research in adult, continuing, and community education are becoming increasingly complex. Issues such as gender, diversity, multiculturalism, economic and social development, and the social contexts of adult learning are presenting new challenges to researchers as well as practitioners in the field.

These dynamics are changing the way research is seen and used in adult, continuing, and community education. They are also changing the research-to-practice relationship. As research becomes increasingly complex and sophisticated, it is less accessible, either to conduct or use, for practitioners. At the same time, the need for good information upon which to make well informed decisions has never been greater. The result is an increased demand on everyone (researcher, practitioner, and practitioner-researcher) to make a special effort to bridge the gap between research and practice. The studies contained in this Proceedings, as indeed is the purpose of this conference, are intended to facilitate this process.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PROCEEDINGS

The Proceedings are organized in a new format this year. Invited session papers have been grouped into eight categories: Adults as Learners; Continuing Education/Professional Development; Gender, Culture & Diversity; Human Resource Development; Literacy; Programming; Research Issues; and Teaching and Learning. We recognize that these categories are rather artificial and that individual papers could have been placed in more than one. Panel presentations will include papers from more than one category to underscore the fact that there are common themes which cross these categories. Each section of the Proceedings includes an introduction written by a graduate student from Indiana University of Pennsylvania and The Ohio State University. Papers include contact information of the invited session presenters for further dialogue.

OVERVIEW OF THE CONTENTS

The papers in the Proceedings present perspectives of practitioners, graduate students and professors of adult, continuing, and community education. They represent a variety of approaches to the relationship of the academic and practical sides of the field. Each seeks to speak to the conference theme of "research to practice." The "dichotomy" of research-practice is approached from the perspective of practitioners as well as academics. The papers from graduate students provide hope that formal training in adult, continuing, and community education produces more effective practitioners.

"Adults as Learners" includes perspectives of adults that are evident in current adult, continuing, and community education literature, especially in regard to understanding characteristics of adults as learners. Effects of age on learners' perceptions of continuing higher education, responses from colleges and agencies to meet affective needs of learners, the relevance of content and respect for adult learners, learning styles and motivations of older adult learners, and dropout and retention are matters that are explored.

"Continuing Education/Professional Development" presents papers on new and enduring themes. These include future technological requirements of practitioners, unresolved issues of volunteerism in continuing education, and new technological and evaluation skills for administrators.

"Gender, Culture & Diversity" includes a wide variety of topics and issues inherent in the such a category. These papers reflect new developments in the way we think of adult development and feminist phase theory, internationalism in extension curriculum, recruitment and retention of minorities in 4-H programs, and intergenerational equity of lifelong learning.

"Human Resource Development" is framed within a broad, work-related learning capacity at the individual, group and organizational levels. Papers in this section address continuing professional education and workplace literacy. One departs from a HRD "training" focus to an investigation of adult learning following job loss.

"Literacy" reflects the multi-dimensional problems and issues related to an area of inquiry that crosses many other adult, continuing, and community education concerns. Papers are concerned with the application of theory-to-practice in learning environments in adult basic education, instructional volunteers, older adult literacy, small group/collaborative learning approaches, student retention and attrition, and issues of learner assessment.

"Programming" offers nine papers that analyze different phases of programming in adult, continuing, and community education and raise significant issues related to them. Topics include strategic planning and organizational values, investigations of program planning activities, belief systems in regard to quality programming, power issues, adoption of change, parent education training, and implications of user fees for extension programs.

"Research Issues" presents a broadened array of research perspectives and purposes. While all the papers in the Proceedings address research-to-practice themes, this group focuses on particular issues within the field. They seek to add to the knowledge base while improving practice, deal with paradigmatic issues, offer new action research strategies and espouse liberatory themes.

"Teaching and Learning" focuses primarily on learner-centered approaches across an interesting mix of social contexts. The papers include topics of meaning making in the learning process, distance education, readiness in self-direction, incidental learning, teaching adults at appropriate cognition levels, and facilitating learning in a higher education setting.

All of the papers in the Proceedings demonstrate that adult, continuing, and community education are more than academic subjects. The interdependence of professors who serve as practitioners and practitioners who infuse praxis with academics will become evident in these Proceedings and the conference discussions. The variety of perspectives and interests illustrate the pluralism of the field. As

others have pointed out recently in a variety of publications and research conferences, what is still missing are papers confronting human rights injustices, the study of volunteerism, learning through the humanities and the promotion of social activism. Others have called for a deemphasis on professionalism and increased attention of emancipatory adult education. Although some papers did address such issues, these remain the challenge for future research-to-practice conferences.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to recognize the contributions to these Proceedings, made by those who submitted papers as well as those who reviewed and made suggestions for revisions. Trenton Ferro, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, was responsible for the review process. Each paper was critiqued by three reviewers for acceptance by the conference committee. As always, there were many deserving papers that could not be accepted due to scheduling constraints of the conference. David Boggs, The Ohio State University, coordinated the collection, editing and printing of the Proceedings with the assistance of Adult Education graduate students, Tonette Rocco and Charles Dyer.

We would also like to thank the graduate students who submitted papers individually and with faculty. The Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Committee is proud to grant a research award each year to one of these graduate students of adult, continuing, and community education.

October 1993

Kevin Freer
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

Gary Dean
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, Pennsylvania

MISSION STATEMENT
MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE
IN ADULT, CONTINUING AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation, and research studies in order to improve practice in Adult Education. It facilitates dialogue and the initiation and pursuit of projects among individuals and groups working in the various fields of Adult Education. Through such discussion and collaboration participants contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

Prepared on behalf of Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Steering Committee

By Boyd Rossing

May 28, 1991

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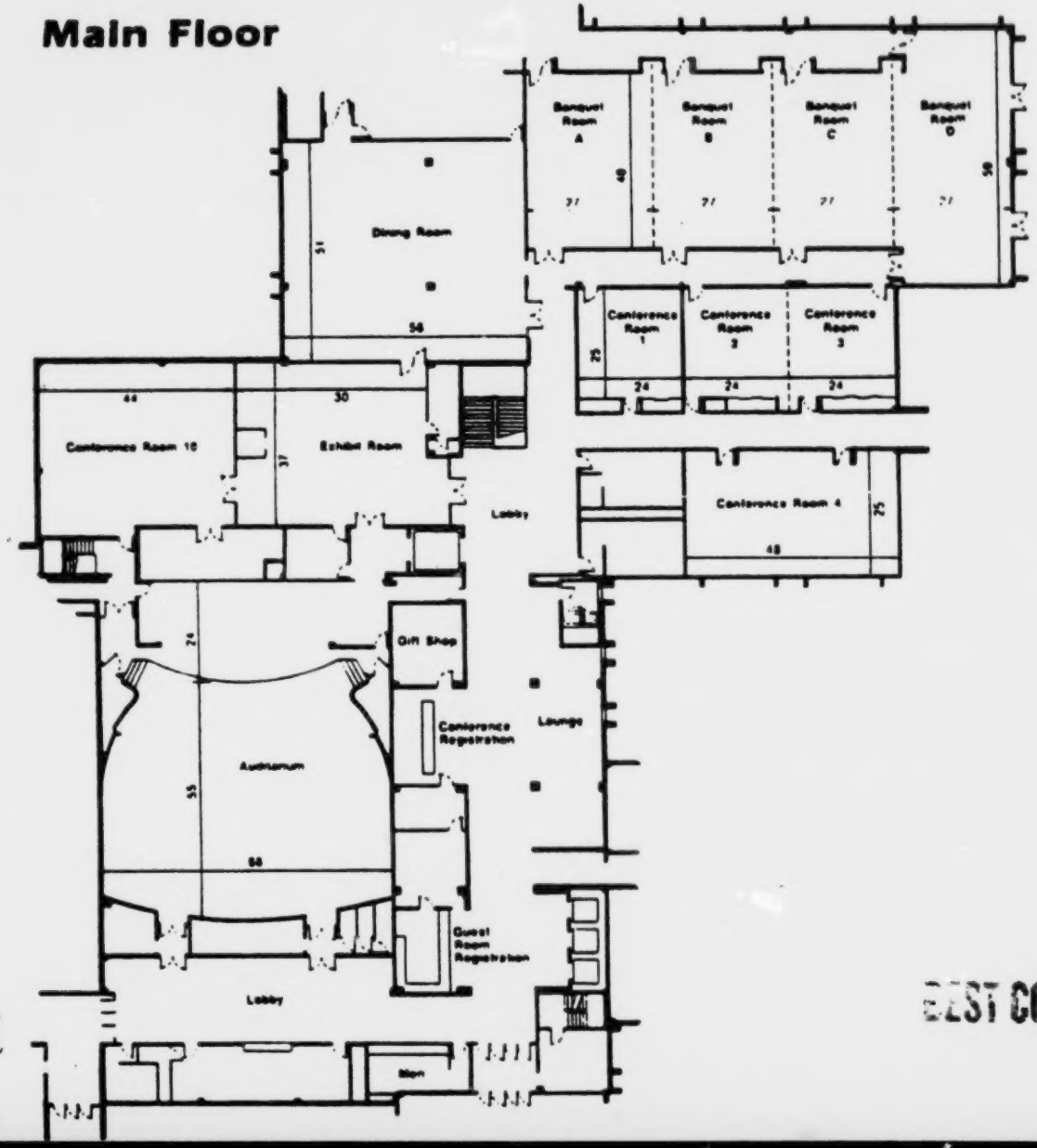
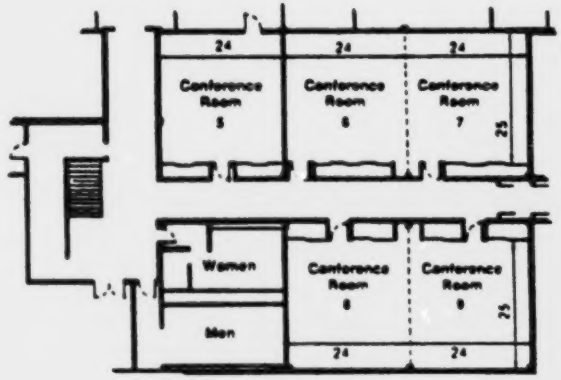
Fawcett Center Meeting Room Floor Plans

Main Floor



Ground Floor



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MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
October 13-15, 1993

Wednesday October 13

Pre-Conference Tours leave the Fawcett Center for Tomorrow 1/2 hour before the scheduled time of the tour.

1:00 - 3:00 p.m. •ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education:
3:00 - 5:00 p.m. Get your questions answered by Susan Imel. Find out how ERIC works.
1:00 - 2:00 p.m. •Franklin Park Conservatory houses a collection of plants from all over the world which serve as the focal point of community education.
2:00 - 3:15 p.m. •Wexner Center for the Arts uses art, exhibits and architecture, as a catalyst for small group discussion and to illustrate points in curriculum.
1:00 - 2:00 p.m. •WOSU AM, WOSU FM AND WOSU CHANNEL 34 provides insight into adult education via technology as distance education.

5:00 - 8:00 p.m. Registration and Information — Lobby

7:00 - 9:00 p.m. **R E C E P T I O N** — Rooms C & D

Fawcett Center for Tomorrow
Sponsored by
The Ohio State University
College of Education
The Ohio State University Extension

Thursday October 14

7:30 - 11:30 Registration & Information — Lobby

8:00 - 10:30 a.m. **R E F R E S H M E N T S** — Lobby

8:30 - 10:00 a.m. OPENING SESSION — Auditorium

Welcome — **David L. Boggs,** The Ohio State University &
Trenton Ferro, Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Greetings — **Drew Allbritten,** Executive Director,
American Association of Adult and Continuing Education
Peyton Hutchinson, President,
American Association of Adult and Continuing Education
David Lynch, Dean, Graduate School,
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
John Johnson, I nterim Associate Dean,
College of Education, Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Linda Stacey, President,
Ohio Association of Adult and Continuing Education

Keynote Speaker — **Oliver Jones,**
Associate Director of The Ohio Humanities Council
The Humanities: A Fount of Adult Learning

10:15-11:30 a.m. **CONCURRENT PANEL SESSIONS**

C. Bishop-Clark & J. M. Lynch	The Influence Of Age On Students Perceptions Of The College Experience.	Room 1
J. T. Lund & C. Dunn Brown	Identifying Critical Factors Of Quality: Comparing Perceptions Of Students Taking Off-Campus Classes With Students Taking On-Campus Classes At A Four-Year Private Institution.	
J. Bankston & J. M. Cano	Factors Related To Recruitment And Retention Of Ethnic Minority Youth In The Ohio 4-H Program.	Room 2
B. G. Ludwig	Internationalizing Extension Curriculum: A Study Of The Attitudes Of Ohio Agricultural & Metropolitan Leaders.	
T. J. Rollins	The Efficacy Of The Innovation Adoption Diffusion Theory In Adult Education.	Room 3
M. K. Turner & J. M. Dirkx	Fostering Adoption Of Innovation And Change In Adult Education Practice: The Commitment To Change Strategy.	
T. J. Ellis & J. H. McElhinney	Facilitating Professional Ethical Development: Beyond Kohlberg, Gilligan, Perry, & Fowler.	Room 6
R. M. Cervero & A. L. Wilson	Interests, Power, And Responsibility In Adult Education Program Planning.	
K. J. Freer & L. Farr Enoch	An Evaluation Of An Adult Literacy Small Group/Collaborative Tutor Training Model.	Room 7
S. Courtney, L. R. Jha & W. A. Babchuk	Life In The Classroom: A Grounded Theory Of The G.E.D. Experience.	

11:30 - 1:00 p.m. **RAFFLE & LUNCHEON**

Holiday Inn on the Lane — **Salons C & D**

Sponsored by

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Graduate School
College of Education
School of Continuing Education

1:00 - 5:00 p.m. Information — Lobby

1:15 - 2:00 p.m. **CONCURRENT SESSIONS**

S. Shore	An Attempt At Critical Ethnography: Dilemmas Facing Higher Degree Researchers For Educational Change.	Room 1

	K. A. Becker	The Development Of Learning Skills For The Non-Traditional Adult: An Investigation Of Meaning-Making In A Community College Reading And Study Skills Course.	Room 2
	B. N. Pike	An Ethnographic Action Research Study: Undergraduate Adult Learners' Perspective On The Learning Process.	Room 3
	R. T. Bothel	A National Perspective Of Computer Competencies For Administrators Of Adult Basic Education Programs.	Room 6
	T. D. Laswell	Up From The Ashes: Adult Learning In The Aftermath Of Job Loss.	Room 7
2:00 - 3:15 p.m.		**REFRESHMENTS**	Lobby
2:15 - 3:00 p.m.	**CONCURRENT SESSIONS**		
	P. M. Boer & T. J. Ellis	Program Planning In The Fourth Dimension: What Do Program Planners Really Do?	Room 1
	M. J. Morgan Sanders	Attitudes About Continuing Education Among Kansas Long-Term Care Registered Nurses.	Room 2
	R. Taylor	Informal and Incidental Learning In Community Problem Solving.	Room 3
	L. L. Sattem	Adult Education And Feminist Phase Theory: Practicing What We Teach.	Room 6
	T. D. Zook	Leadership Practices Of Mega-Church Pastors.	Room 7
3:15 - 4:15 p.m.	**CONCURRENT SESSIONS**		
	L. L. Bierema	Executive Women In Business In The United States: A Study Of Their Learning Strategies In Corporate Cultures.	Room 1
	J. H. McElhinney L. Butterfield Cupp	Personnel Evaluation In Adult Education. The Impact Of Education On Adult Students: Deviations From Research On Traditional Students.	Room 2
	E. Adekunle-Wilson & L. G. Martin	Improving Parent Education Capacity.	Room 3
	C. A. Mealman	Incidental Learning By Adults In A Nontraditional Degree Program: A Case Study.	Room 6

	L. R. Jha & J. M. Dirkx	Doing Something About Dropout: A Study Of A Participatory Approach To Addressing Student Attrition In Adult Education.	Room 7
4:30 - 5:00 p.m.		Car pools to reception & dinner	Lobby
5:00 - 7:00 p.m.		**RECEPTION**	
		Cultural Arts Center *Sponsored by* American Association for Adult and Continuing Education Central Ohio Association for Adult and Continuing Education Pennsylvania Association for Adult and Continuing Education	
		Dinner On Your Own **(or join groups accompanied by O.S.U. guides.)**	

Friday October 15

7:30 - 8:30 a.m.		Steering Committee Breakfast	Banquet Room A
8:30 - 10:30 p.m.		**REFRESHMENTS**	Lobby
9:00 - 10:15 p.m.	**CONCURRENT PANEL SESSIONS**		
	G. Y. Turner	Adult Literacy Assessment: Challenging The Status Quo.	Room 1
	S. G. Pritz & S. Imel	Involving Workers In Workplace Literacy.	
	C. D. Penrose & J. D. Rohrer	User Fees in the Extension System.	Room 2
	N. L. Conklin, J. M. Jones, & R. D. Safrit	Organizational Values Of Ohio State University Extension: Linking Research To Organizational Decisions And Directions.	
	J. M. Dirkx & T. Fonfara	Doing Something To Help: Theories And Beliefs Of Instructional Volunteers In Adult Basic Education.	Room 3
	J. C. Fisher	Dropout And Return: The Experience Of School As Articulated By Older Adult Basic Education Students.	Room 6
	M. E. Holt & M. Cseh	Intergenerational Equity and Its Meaning to Adult Education.	
	D. Rosenberg & G. Workman, B. Nelson	It's Never Too Late: Senior Race Car Drivers - The Golden Eagles: Participation And Learning Styles Of Older Adults Engaged In Grand Prix Race Car Competition.	

	J. A. Henschke	Effective Techniques/Methods For Conference Presentations: Research Issues.	Room 7
	L. R. Sandmann	Using Research To Create Linkages Between Organizations.	
	L. E. Miller	Research-To-Practice In A Positivistic Community.	

10:30 - 11:30 a.m. **CONCURRENT SESSIONS**

C. A. Burkhart-Kriesel	Trade-Offs: Social Interaction In Adult Distance Education.	Room 1
J. A. Shank	Adult Vocational Student Dropout And Retention In Occupational Training Programs.	Room 2

T. D. Laswell & J. M. Dirkx	In The Eye Of The Beholder: The Problem Of Multiple Perspectives In Program Renewal And Improvement.	Room 3
L. E. Miller	Teaching For Higher Level Cognition In Adult Education Programs.	

A. Frank	Health Competence And Learner Self Directedness: A Congruency Model For Enhancing Teaching-Learning Transactions In Health Education.	Room 6
N. L. Conklin	Issues Programming Training Needs Of Ohio State University Extension Faculty.	Room 7

11:45 - 1:30 p.m. **LUNCHEON & PANEL DISCUSSION**

Fawcett Center for Tomorrow BANQUET ROOMS C & D

Sponsored by
Pennsylvania Association for Adult and Continuing Education

Welcome — **Dean Nancy Zimpher,** the College of Education, The Ohio State University

Panel Moderator — **Joe Heimlich,** Ohio State University Extension

Panelists
Robert Alexander, Franklin Park Conservatory
Marcelita Haskins, WOSU AM, WOSU FM, & WOSU CHANNEL 34
Susan Imel, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education
Patricia Trumps, Wexner Center

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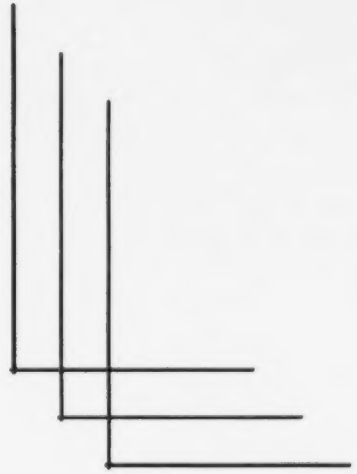

Adults As Learners

ADULTS AND LEARNERS

A plethora of profiles of adult learners can be found in the adult education literature. Among the many characteristics identified in these profiles are barriers to participation, motivational orientations for participation, learning and cognitive styles, and demographic characteristics. The current group of studies contained in this volume add to that literature base and our understanding of adult learners.

Two trends can be seen in the adult education literature regarding adult learners. One trend highlights the differences between adults and youth as learners. The second trend emphasizes the diversity among adults as learners. Given the characteristics, motivational factors, and life transitions that profile the adult learner, it follows that their needs are unique and unlike the needs of younger learners. However, it has also long been recognized that there is a great deal of diversity to be found among any group of adult learners. Perhaps there is even more diversity than similarity among adults in general.

Who participates and why they participate is often identified through the variety of barriers, motivational orientations, and learning styles which adults bring to their educational experiences. Since adult learners are frequently employed full-time or part-time and have families to support and care for, their lives become a juggling act. Not only must they become adept at balancing multiple roles, i.e., career, family, and studies, they also must be able to change hats before entering each arena. The approaches taken to assure that this diversity is addressed requires creativity on the part of adult educators. The papers in this section support the research that adulthood is dynamic, that there are many differences among adult learners, and that the nature of adult learning is most often voluntary.

C. Bishop-Clark and J. M. Lynch studied how age influences students' perceptions regarding their college experiences. They suggest the importance of educators developing an andragogical approach to better address the diverse age groups found in college classrooms. They note that further investigation into other demographic variables may also influence attitudes about the college experience.

L. Butterfield Cupp examined the impact education has on adult students with regard to their attitudes, values, and self-esteem. It was concluded that respect for adult learners and their desire for immediate application of learning outcomes demands a more creative response from colleges and agencies that are involved in adult education.

The unifying theme of three of the papers recognizes the importance of relevance of course content and respect for adult learners. J.T. Lund and C. Dunn-Brown discuss the importance of providing quality off-campus classes. They stress the need for comparable standards to be maintained while distinctive characteristics of the adult learners are recognized. B. Nelson, D. Rosenberg, and G. J. Workman identified the learning styles and motivations of older adult learners involved in a non-traditional educational context. They regard the need for course relevance, flexibility, and creativity in teaching as the primary mechanisms through which respect for the adult learners is demonstrated.

J.A. Shank described the issues of adult vocational student dropout and retention in occupational training programs. Shank offers a dropout prediction model to identify students who are at-risk of dropping-out. Among the factors identifies as affecting drop out are course schedules, finances and employment, outside agency support, instructor ability, physical disabilities, interpersonal relations, academic abilities and habits, and family responsibilities.

While these papers present a varied approach to the adult learner, the perspectives offer an understanding that will allow adult educators to meet the challenge of becoming more reflective as facilitators. Understanding who the adult learners are and why they participate are essential activities that enhance the development and implementation of programs to meet the needs of adult learners. Providing an environment that focuses on needs, respect, and course relevance will separate lifelong education from lifelong learning.

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THE INFLUENCE OF AGE ON STUDENTS PERCEPTIONS OF THE COLLEGE EXPERIENCE

Cathy Bishop-Clark and Jean M. Lynch

ABSTRACT

We investigated the influence of age on student's perceptions of the mixed age college classroom in the following categories: attitudes of students toward the mixed age college classroom, perceptions about each age group, and opinions regarding the professor student relationship. Findings indicated a substantial appreciation of the mixed age college classroom. Older and younger students do hold some negative perceptions regarding both their own and the other's age group. Age alone however does not explain the lack of acceptance some students feel toward different ages. This is particularly true with respect to social intimacy and self evaluation where other variables (marital status and children) better describe friendship and choice of reference group. Both older and younger students do perceive that relationships with professors are different based on the age of the students; however, they apparently do not translate such differences into favoritism nor necessarily view such behavior negatively. Finally, age, gender and employment status all effect perceptions students hold of the professor.

The research provides substantiation for earlier arguments that age alone cannot be utilized to operationalize the nontraditional students. While age is important, other variables must also be considered as providing important insights into differences in student attitudes.

INTRODUCTION

Much of the recent evidence suggests that an increasing number of "adult" learners are returning to school and it is predicted, this phenomenon will continue. Very little has been published on the mixed age college classroom and yet college faculty and administrators need to know how this change in demographics will affect their campuses. This is particularly true at 2 year colleges and branch campuses where the influx of older students is particularly evident.

A significant problem in the literature that has been completed is the operationalization of nontraditional. While most of the research identifies the adult student by age (that is, over 25), others suggest that this measure fails to explore other variables that need to be considered when defining this population. For example, attention to age and other "life style" differences such as marital status, children, and employment may well provide a better indicator of nontraditional/traditional status. In addition, variables related to school performance and experience might also be important in explaining differences between student groups (for example, GPA, year in school, type of degree).

However defined, the research that has been completed on nontraditional students has yielded contradictory evidence. A significant body of literature considers how this new population will change teaching methods and interactions within the classroom. Most of the research on college professors focuses on potential difficulties faced by professors by including older students in their classrooms. Mishler and Davenport (1983) note the resistance of faculty members to classrooms which include older students. Ommen, Brainard and Canfield (1979) suggest that older students perceive faculty members as authority figures and have less need to interact with professors, a finding which is in direct opposition to the new emphasis on promoting methods of interaction and cooperation in the classroom. Others find different results: Chism, Cano and Pruitt (1989) and Darkenwald (1989) reported that adults are more likely to seek reassurance from professors and to value teacher-student interaction. While most indicate faculty members are not utilizing new teaching methods, our early findings suggest that there are some strategies that are useful in the mixed age classroom (Lynch and Bishop-Clark,1991; Bishop-Clark and Lynch, 1992).

In addition to reporting on the difficulties faced by professors, research also indicates that adult students bring a number of problems to the college campus. For example, Chism, Cano and Pruitt (1989) note the older student is often self-conscious, anxious and resists the learning of

abstract concepts; Miller (1989) reports adults often have unrealistic goals. In addition, other research investigated whether there were differences in learning styles (Holtzclaw, 1980; Jacobowitz and Shanan, 1982; Miller, 1989) and thus, whether different teaching methods were indicated (Keller et al, 1991; Ross-Gordon, 1991).

Finally, some research argued that younger people hold ageist attitudes (Collett-Pratt, 1976; Kilty and Feld, 1978) and Jacobs (1989) claimed tensions might exist between the two in classroom settings. Finally, the reverse may also be true: our research indicated that older students have prejudiced opinions with respect to younger students as well (Lynch and Bishop-Clark, forthcoming).

Despite findings suggesting the potential conflicts created by diverse ages in college classrooms, there are reports which predict the opposite. Mishler and Davenport (1983, 1984) found that students appreciate the mixed age college classroom; our initial analyses substantiates this and indicate that overall, there is greater acceptance than resistance to diverse age groups in classroom settings (Lynch and Bishop-Clark, forthcoming).

METHODOLOGY

In the winter of 1991, we conducted a series of focus groups to investigate the learning experiences of nontraditional students (Bishop-Clark and Lynch, 1992). We held three focus groups with approximately five students per group. Our discussion guide included a number of open-ended items designed to tap a variety of areas of the respondents experiences. The recurring themes of the focus group research as well as the literature and our personal experiences provided the foundation for our survey instrument.

We selected a stratified random sample of 320 students from all students enrolled in two branch campuses of a medium sized midwestern public university. We chose students who had accumulated a total of at least 18 credit hours at one of the two branch campuses. Our rationale for such criteria was that we were primarily interested in those students who had taken several college classes, and we did not want to interview new transfer students whose previous college experience may have been in a more traditional environment. Approximately 62% of our college population is traditional (over age 25). Our sample was stratified to reflect these proportions; thus, we selected 121 older and 199 younger students.

We were interested in investigating three categories of students perceptions about the mixed age college environment: attitudes toward the mixed age classroom experience, attitudes about each age group and perceptions regarding student's relationships with their professors. In all, our items included a total of 73 5 point likert-type questions, 4 open ended questions, and 20 demographic type questions relating to life style (for example, marital and employment status) or school related variables (for example GPA, previous college experience). For the likert-type questions, response categories were strongly agree, agree, mixed, disagree and strongly disagree. The four open-ended questions provided the respondents with an opportunity to give opinions or experiences that were not a part of the questionnaire.

In the winter of 1992, undergraduate students were hired and trained to conduct the telephone interviews. Over a 10 week period, they called the students selected, explained the questionnaire and asked for their cooperation. The interviewer proceeded to read each question and write the respondent's spoken response. Only 6% of the students refused to be interviewed.

We analyzed the survey data through a series of cross tabulations; when appropriate we extended the analysis using the appropriate measures of association and multivariate statistics.

RESULTS

ATTITUDES TOWARD THE MIXED AGE COLLEGE CLASSROOM

For the most part, our results indicated more similarities than differences between our traditional and nontraditional samples, however defined. That is, regardless of age, life style or school related variables, respondents indicated a generally positive attitude with respect to mixed age classrooms. For example, 90% of all students liked being in a mixed age classroom and almost all indicated that having students of diverse ages in their classes helps them to see different perspectives. Two-thirds agreed that they learned more in mixed aged classrooms.

There were some differences with respect to whether students would prefer to learn in mixed age settings however. While 67% of both older and younger students would rather be in classes with diverse ages, there was some variation by age and gender of student. Females (72%) were much more likely to indicate they preferred mixed age classrooms overall; 42% of the males were unsure or disagreed with this item. While the majority of students indicated they preferred diverse ages when working on small group projects, this was less true of younger students and males. Thus, about one-third of the males disagreed or had mixed feelings about being in small groups. Finally, both traditional and nontraditional students with lower GPA's were more likely to prefer classrooms with students their own age.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS EACH AGE GROUP

A number of items investigated student's attitudes towards their own and each other's age group. For the most part, students believed there is not much difference between older and younger students in the classroom (71%). In addition, less than 5% reported that either age group resents the presence of the other. We did find that our traditional and nontraditional students did hold some negative perceptions regarding their own and each other's age groups; however, younger students appeared to have less ageist attitudes toward older students than the reverse. In addition, younger students tended to be harder on their own age group and apparently subscribe to some of the negative stereotypes commonly attributed to youth.

For example, older students (46%) believed that the younger students were naive about the "real world," yet 36% of the traditional students also agreed with this. In addition, while 60% of the older students indicated that younger students do not take school seriously enough, 44% of the younger students answered similarly. Twenty-five percent of the nontraditional respondents said younger students "have it easier." Younger students were more likely to believe that their own peers were reluctant to contribute to class discussions (32%); 18% of the nontraditional students agreed with this statement. About 20% of the traditional students claimed "younger students think they know it all." By comparison, attitudes towards the older student appeared much less derogatory.

Younger students (59%) said older students were more apt to speak their minds; less than half of the older students perceived this (45%). Older students are more likely (43%) than younger 25% to believe they are too concerned about grades. Younger students were also more likely to report that older students monopolize classroom discussions.

Age, however, was not the only variable which explained some of the negative perceptions groups held about each other nor the lack of interaction between them. Rather, age and other life style variables are important influences with respect to these differences. Marital status and the presence of children apparently makes some difference with respect to relationships between students. For example, younger unmarried students are more apt to believe that older students monopolize discussions in the classroom (64%). In addition single students with fewer family responsibilities appeared most reluctant to socialize with older students, and reported that most of their friends on campus were in their own age group (62%). It is interesting to note however that it is the presence of children that apparently is the explanatory variable here. Only about 30% of respondents with children indicated most of their friends were their own age, regardless of marital status. This is also true with respect to self evaluation, with childless students more likely to agree

that "when I compare myself to other students, I tend to only compare myself to students my own age." Only about 10% of other respondents indicated this. Finally, respondents with children (regardless of age) were more likely to believe that "younger students have it easier."

PROFESSOR STUDENT RELATIONSHIP

For both traditional and nontraditional students, responses to a number of items clearly indicated that students observe differences in the relationships and interactions between professors and younger and older students It is interesting to note however, that neither group appeared to perceive this as favoritism; few students agreed that professors do not like teaching older students (less than 1%), gear their lectures towards either group (less than 6%), or grade differentially (less than 3%). Neither group was "frightened of the professor" (less than 5%), felt uncomfortable talking to their professor outside of class (11%) or were intimidated visiting the professor's office (about 14%). While there were differences in older and younger students perceptions of professor student relationships, few of these could be explained by age alone.

Other variables are apparently more significant with respect to the interaction between professors and their students. Younger, single and childless students were more likely to perceive that older students tend to treat the professor as a friend. Sixty-five percent of this group perceived this differential treatment of the professor by the older student; less than half of the remaining agreed with this.

Finally, sex and present employment appears to have a relationship to how students view professors. Overall, females are much less likely to view their professors as peers (about 30%) but also much less likely to perceive the professor as an expert (40%). Presently employed males are the most likely to view the professor as an expert, regardless of age (58%). However, age and work both emerge as significant with respect to students' perceptions of professors as their peers. Thus, older males who work are the most likely to perceive some equality of status between themselves and their professors.

CONCLUSION

Our investigation of the mixed age college environment produced some important insights into how student's themselves perceive this phenomenon. First, most students appear to appreciate diversity of ages in the classroom and for the most part, believe that there are more similarities than differences between the two groups. While there are some negative attitudes younger and older students have regarding themselves and each other, we believe that these opinions could be alleviated through campus and classroom activities in which faculty and administrators could promote greater interaction and understanding between the two. There does appear to be differences in student professor relationships and perceptions yet our results indicate that at least from the students perspective, these differences cause few difficulties.

What our results did suggest is that the operationalization of the nontraditional student is a complicated issue. Our findings indicate that age alone is related to some differences in students attitudes. However, with respect to opinions regarding themselves and the "other" age group, other variables are also important in understanding student differences. This is particularly true with respect to those items which measured "social relations" between students (for example, self evaluation and choice of friends) and those which measured student's perceptions of their professors.

Finally, we believe that although our findings indicate a generally accepting attitude on the part of students toward a diverse age college environment, faculty and administrators should attend to those difficulties that do emerge on the mixed age college campus. Activities both within and outside the college classroom that encourage students to appreciate diversity, whether the difference is due to age, gender, marital, employment or other status can only serve to enhance all student's educational experiences. A mixed age college environment can provide a unique atmosphere for learning. As educators we must find ways to utilize the potential this opportunity affords.

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THE IMPACT OF EDUCATION ON ADULT STUDENTS: DEVIATIONS FROM RESEARCH ON TRADITIONAL STUDENTS

Linda Butterfield Cupp

ABSTRACT

A study was conducted at a large, midwestern, four year institution of higher learning to explore adult undergraduate students' perceptions of the impact of the educational experience on attitudes, values, interests, and aspirations. The interviews in this study revealed that adults believe education alters, enhances, or accelerates developing attitudes and values; stimulates new interests; and defines, heightens and makes possible the realization of aspirations, but they also reveal deviations from earlier research on traditional age students which have important implications for educators and administrators of programs for adults in higher education.

Differences between the perceptions of adults in this study and the research on traditional age students include: a) a decrease in self- esteem for students who received lower grades than anticipated, b) adult students inability to integrate newly realized interests into their lives, c) a tension between education fostering more tolerant and more critical attitudes, and d) the relative importance placed on extrinsic rather than intrinsic values. In addition, because changes in perspectives often begin prior to returning to school, there is a question concerning the extent to which these changes are developmental rather than a direct result of the educational experience.

INTRODUCTION

A declining number of traditional age students and an increasing number of adult students at the college level are significantly impacting the future of higher education. Administrators and educators must evaluate the impact of the educational experience on adults in order to develop programs relevant to the educational needs of adult students.

Although the acquisition of knowledge is central to the mission of institutions of higher learning, education impacts adults in other meaningful ways (Astin, 1977, 1993; Bowen, 1977; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969; Graham, 1989; Mezirow, 1978). Many consider becoming aware of and questioning our perspectives of extraordinary importance to the educational mission (Bowen, 1977; Brookfield, 1986; Mezirow, 1978), for changes in the way one views the world not only affect the individual but cumulatively impact society (Bowen, 1977; Freire, 1970; Mezirow, 1989). Although the majority of studies have focused on changes in the traditional age student, changes in perspectives may also apply to the adult student (Brookfield, 1986; Schlossberg, Lynch, & Chickering, 1989).

Certain general trends about the impact of education have been identified in traditional college age students. For example, studies demonstrate that college enhances self esteem and feelings of competence (Astin, 1977; Bowen, 1977, Chickering, 1969), increases interest in the arts and humanities and intrinsic rather than extrinsic values (Bowen, 1977; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969), and fosters intellectual tolerance (Bowen, 1977; Perry, 1970).

THE RESEARCH

A qualitative research design was selected to explore the perceived impact of the educational experience on adult students' attitudes, values, interests, and aspirations.

A sequence of open-ended interview questions was developed. Fifteen students were selected from a population of 216 students, 25 years of age and older, in their senior year in the College of Arts and Science. The students were enrolled in a midwestern land-grant university with a total undergraduate population of approximately 19,000 students. Eleven of the 15 students were selected through random sampling, and the remaining four were selected through purposive sampling to provide a distribution of ages necessary for comparative analysis. Individual responses from taped interviews were summarized and coded, and emerging themes and

patterns provided the foundation for collapsing the data into categories. The categories were continually refined and analyzed.

FINDINGS

The findings in this study revealed that adults believe undergraduate education alters, enhances, or accelerates developing attitudes and values; stimulates new interests; and defines, heightens, and makes possible the realization of aspirations. Changes for many of these students began prior to returning to an educational environment and for some precipitated the decision to return. Therefore, there is a question concerning the extent to which these changes are developmental rather than a direct result of the educational experience. In addition, several tensions surfaced which need to be addressed by educators to maximize the educational experience of the adult.

SELF- ESTEEM. Most students reported that the educational experience made them feel more "confident," and "competent." Others reported increased "recognition," "acceptance," "self-worth," "pride," and "self-satisfaction." Several other students in their forties, however, indicated decreased self- esteem resulting from an grades which were lower than they hoped they would receive. These students expressed unhappiness with the educational experience, their performance, and with themselves. They believed they had disappointed themselves and others. Nonverbal behavior during these questions in the interview supported the devastation they expressed. Although there could be a relationship between either age or performance and self-esteem, it appears that the educational experience has the potential of severely damaging the self- esteem of adults who do not perform as well academically as they had hoped.

ATTITUDES TOWARD OTHERS. Exploring students' perceptions about the impact of the educational experience on their attitudes toward others uncovered what appeared to be a tension between becoming more tolerant and more critical. While some students indicated they were more "sympathetic," "enlightened," or "tolerant" of different lifestyles, ideas, and viewpoints, many also reported they were also more "critical" of others. When these students were asked to further define their response, they indicated that while they were more open to or appreciative of other's ideas, cultures, and religions, they were also more discriminating in selecting and maintaining personal relationships with others. For example, students reported they were reevaluating their friendships, becoming more critical in selecting love relationships, and feeling a "lack of patience," or "anger" toward those whom they perceived as lacking motivation.

PRAGMATIC CONSIDERATIONS. An inconsistency with earlier studies of traditional age students was the relative importance placed on intrinsic rather than extrinsic values. Although the traditional age senior student may "place less emphasis than freshmen on money, material possessions, and security" (Bowen, 1977, p. 109), the adult senior student has more practical interest in an education such as how it will advance them professionally (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980; Cross, 1981; Graham, 1986; Houle, 1961; Knowles, 1984, Tough, 1978). In this study, these practical reasons for pursuing an education appear as relevant when they leave the educational experience as when they enter it. Students enjoy and feel they have grown and matured intellectually as a result of their formal education but indicate the responsibilities of being an adult force them to concentrate on more practical issues.

NEW INTERESTS Although adults returned to school for pragmatic reasons, the educational environment stimulated new and expanded former interests, particularly in the arts and humanities and in social issues. This increased interest may be attributable both to exposure to many different disciplines within the liberal arts curriculum and to the variety of liberal arts experiences offered by the university and community. Interestingly, although students reported an increase in interests as a result of exposure to a wide variety of curricular and extracurricular activities, they reported that they were unable to pursue these interests because of time constraints. Thus, if transforming newly realized interests or new perspectives into thoughtful action is a priority of education and if students do not have the time to pursue both education and that which it stimulates, educators must question whether they are defeating part of their educational mission.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Although adult students are similar to traditional age students on a number of issues, this study surfaced important differences which must be taken into account when developing programs for adult students.

It is noteworthy that while increased self- efficacy in the students in the study was only partially attributable to the educational experience, decreased self-esteem was wholly attributable to the educational experience. While the relationship between age and self-esteem may be an issue, the self- esteem of adults returning to an academic situation appears to be more fragile than the traditional age student, and therefore classroom strategies which foster self-esteem must be carefully selected. For example, Astin (1993) reports that for traditional age students the peer group is a powerful learning tool and therefore cooperative learning techniques have a positive influence on the learning experience. There are many collaborative learning techniques which allow adult students to bring their prior knowledge and experiences into the classroom. Not only does the student feel validated by his or her contribution to the classroom, but it serves to involve the students in an active learning situation and to make education relevant by providing concrete examples of abstract theory.

Students reported being more tolerant of others; they also reported being more critical or discriminating in selecting and maintaining personal relationships. Apparently these students are more tolerant in an impersonal or abstract sense but not in personal situations. Expanding the amount of information about other cultures and varying philosophical and ideological viewpoints appears to increase acceptance of differing ideas, beliefs and values, but the increase in knowledge acquired in the learning process causes these adult students to view themselves differently. For those who have performed well academically, perhaps the effort expended and the increased self- esteem precipitates a comparison between their own growth and development and the growth and development of others. Although those who did not perform as well academically as they had hoped suffered decreased self-esteem, they did express pride in their effort which may have fostered a comparison between themselves and others as well.

Another difference with earlier studies on traditional age students is the relative importance placed on extrinsic rather than intrinsic values. Adults in this study respond similarly to adults in other studies. They sought further education to assist them professionally rather than personally. Although they believe that their personal development was significantly impacted as a result of the educational experience and environment, the responsibilities of being an adult force them to remain focused on furthering their career and improving their financial situation. Although students indicated that practical concerns were the overriding issue, it is the belief of this author that concern for one's professional future camouflaged some of the inherent benefits most students derived from education. This belief is a product of impressions derived from the interviews. For example, although those who had not performed well generally were anxious to complete their education and to receive their degree, they also reported, with the exception of one student, that they would repeat the experience. Students interviewed indicated they enjoyed their classes and found it difficult to think of classes they didn't like, and all those interviewed indicated they would participate in continuing education experiences. As one student indicated, returning to a formal education as an adult is a "growing experience, a bettering of self."

Another tension which surfaced may not only be a barrier to individual students but a barrier to the goals of education. Although students report an increase in interests as a result of exposure to a wide variety of curricular and non- curricular activities, their time to pursue these activities and incorporate them into their life diminishes. Since time constraints on adults impact the extent to which they can assimilate their educational experiences into their life situations, the classroom must be highly interactive and discussion oriented to allow time for thoughtful integration of new information. In addition, instructors can incorporate written assignments such as journals to foster thoughtful reflection. This study reaffirms the importance of transforming abstract theories into information which is relevant and applicable to adult life situations. Adult learners are more

discriminating and less tolerant of educational experiences which are not relevant to their situations.

Perhaps it is time for us as educators to evaluate the goals of education. Do we want the outcomes of a college education to be content acquisition or are there other goals such as increased critical thinking and reflection skills which merit equal, if not priority, concern? Although we tend to evaluate students on content acquisition, many educators are increasingly focusing on empowering adults by nurturing lifelong learning skills such as critical reflection and self-directed learning. By redirecting our focus on the learning experience to incorporate lifelong learning skills, we might better empower adults to cope with the current technological and informational explosion as well as make the college experience itself more meaningful.

While these students believed education had altered, enhanced, or accelerated changes in their attitudes and values, they also believed many of these changes had begun prior to returning to an educational environment. These findings support the earlier research conducted by Bowen (1977) and Feldman and Newcomb (1969). If changes in perspectives begin prior to returning to school for the traditional age student, one would certainly expect the same to be true of the adult student who has additional experience and time to mature and formulate attitudes and values. The interconnectedness between adult education and adult development theory must be acknowledged (Merriam, 1984), and adult education must consider developmental processes as well as content and methodology in planning educational programs for adults.

Astin (1977) suggests that one way to assess whether changes are a product of the educational experience or of normal maturational processes is to look at the level of student involvement in extracurricular student activities and organizations. Although adult students in this study attribute many changes to education, they remain uninvolved in campus activities because of time constraints. Therefore, while involvement may be one form of assessment for traditional age students, it may not be an effective evaluation tool for the nontraditional student. Since involvement has a direct correlation to student retention and any involvement the adult student may experience may be that which is incorporated into the classroom itself, adult educators need to use participatory teaching strategies in the classroom which foster group dynamics and feelings of belonging. In addition, strategies such as group assignments outside the classroom may provide additional positive interaction for adult students.

If educators are to be successful in developing and implementing programs designed to meet adult needs, they must find ways to address the unique circumstances and experiences of the adult, to maximize their strengths, and to cope with and overcome their limitations. Because the majority of the learning process of adult students takes place in the classroom, its structure must be carefully planned. As teachers in and administrators of adult programs, educators need to examine their beliefs and attitudes about adults as learners, their philosophy of teaching and learning, and the purpose and goals of education as it relates to adults. And then they must transform their insights into meaningful classroom experiences.

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IDENTIFYING CRITICAL FACTORS OF QUALITY: COMPARING PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS TAKING OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES WITH STUDENTS TAKING ON-CAMPUS CLASSES AT A FOUR-YEAR PRIVATE INSTITUTION

Joan T. Lund and Carol Dunn Brown

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether students enrolled in off-campus credit classes perceive the quality of their classes to be comparable to those who enroll on-campus.

Ninety-three students from a four-year private institution responded to a survey which asked them to evaluate the presence of instructional dimensions in their classes. The respondents were also asked to rate the relevancy of each of the instructional dimensions to the quality of their classes and to rank order the four factors most critical to the quality of their classes.

The comparability of the two student groups is verified by a chi-square calculation. No significant difference in perception of instructional dimensions was found between on-campus and off-campus students. The correlation between relevance to quality and ranking of critical factors resulted in moderate correlations. The same seven critical factors of quality were identified as were reported in an earlier study.

All stakeholders in higher education--administrators, faculty, students and governing boards--now have additional empirical data from on-campus and off-campus students in the same program who have had comparable educational experiences.

INTRODUCTION

The quality of off-campus credit classes is of major concern to all stakeholders in higher education: administrators, faculty, students, and governing boards. Many higher education administrators claim the quality of off-campus classes is less than that of those taught on-campus. (Stauffer, 1981). It is the contention of K. Patricia Cross that "many educators and policy makers are calling for new forms of quality assessment of programs designed to serve the unique needs of adults. The question 'what is quality?' appears to be straightforward and objective when in fact it is neither" (1984).

In moving conventional academic programs off-campus, care must be taken to work cooperatively in establishing degree programs off-campus in order to uphold the integrity of the institution. Lynd and Powell (1981) state that "off-campus activities should evolve from the on-campus programmatic strengths and academic expertise of the institution." Votruba (1979) argues that on-campus and off-campus credit programs have the responsibility of being comparable. While comparability does imply comparing one with another, it is important to note that programs can have distinctive characteristics while maintaining comparable standards and criteria which lead to quality. Theodore Campbell (1982) feels that the responsibility for maintaining comparable academic quality must be shared by both the institution's extension (off-campus) division and the on-campus university staff.

This research has focused on the critical factors of quality identified by students who have taken on-campus credit classes and students who have taken off-campus credit classes as they pursued their bachelor's degrees at a four year private institution. Which instructional dimensions are relevant to the quality of classroom experience and are these influenced by the location of the class? The survey of students is based on the belief that they would reveal the critical factors administrators need to understand in order to provide comparable educational opportunities on-campus and off-campus.

METHODOLOGY

Students were surveyed using the instrument developed by Lund and Kersten (1992) to provide data on factors of quality identified by students in off-campus and on-campus credit classes. This study looks at two different sub-populations at one of the institutions studied in the original research (Lund & Kersten, 1992)--students enrolled only in on-campus classes and students enrolled only in off-campus classes. Respondents include 93 students: 46 students enrolled off-campus and 47 students enrolled on-campus in spring, 1991. The comparability of the student groups is verified by a chi-square calculation.

Eighty-one percent of the students are over age 30--78% on-campus and 83% off-campus. Forty-three percent of the students are male (45% on campus and 42% off-campus) and 57% are female (55% on-campus and 58% off-campus. Forty-seven percent of the on-campus students had a grade point average (gpa) of 3.0 or higher while 54 % of those off-campus had a gpa above 3.0. Nine out of 10 off-campus students are majoring in business-related areas; eight out of 10 on-campus are business majors. The only significant difference between the two groups was in the gpa. The off-campus population's gpa was significantly higher than that of the on-campus group.

The survey instrument used was developed originally by Lewis (1984). Through interviews with students, faculty, and administrators at four public and four private institutions, the items in Lewis' survey were critiqued and slightly altered. Two pilot studies were conducted with graduate students at Northern Illinois University and attendees at the Illinois Council for Continuing Higher Education conference in February, 1991 (Lund and Kersten, 1992).

HYPOTHESES

H_1. There is no significant difference in degree of reported presence of instructional dimensions as perceived by those enrolled on-campus and those enrolled off-campus.

H_2. There is a significantly high correlation in perceptions of relevance to quality when perceptions are compared for students enrolled in on-campus classes and students enrolled in off-campus classes.

H_3. There is a significantly high correlation between rankings of critical factors of quality by students enrolled in on-campus classes and students enrolled in off-campus classes.

H_1 was tested for significance at the .01 level. At the .01 level of significance, only one item showed a difference in perception. Off-campus students rated the use of audio-visual and media equipment to be present more frequently than on-campus students. At the .05 level, the item "instructors demonstrated respect for students" differed. Off-campus students indicated that instructors demonstrated respect for students more frequently than on-campus students.

Using Spearman's rho, the correlation between critical factors and relevancy to quality by on-campus students resulted in a 37% commonality, and the correlation for off-campus students between critical factors and relevancy resulted in a 39% commonality.

The rankings of critical factors of quality by on-campus students have a shared commonality of 29% with the ranking of critical factors by off-campus students as determined by using the Spearman's

FINDINGS

Comparing on-campus and off-campus students, there was no significant difference in students' perceptions of presence of instructional dimensions. However, the correlation between relevancy to quality and ranking of critical factors resulted only in a moderate rather than a significantly high correlation in both the on-campus and off-campus groups as did the correlation between rankings of critical factors by on-campus students compared with off-campus students.

The seven themes reported in the earlier research emerge from these data as well:

Adult Learning Environment (approachability, communication, concern, expectations, interest, respect, students, understanding)
Curriculum Relevance (content, curriculum, professional growth, relevance, relevancy, subject matter)
Instructor Enthusiasm (instructor enthusiasm)
Instructor Expertise (competency, expertise, instructor knowledge, teacher)
Instructional Methodology (discussion, ideas, methods, objectives, presentation
Physical Parameters (appropriate work, clarity of lessons, class size, convenience, environment, location, time)
Resource Materials (AV materials, library, materials, text)

The following rankings were obtained:

RANKINGS OF CRITICAL FACTORS

On-Campus students	Off-campus students
#1 Instructor Expertise	#1 Instructor Expertise
#2 Adult Learning Environment	#2 Physical Parameters
#3 Physical Parameters	#3 Curriculum Relevance
#4 Instructor Enthusiasm	#4 Adult Learning Environment
#5 Instructional Methodology	#5 Instructor Enthusiasm
#6 Resource Materials	#6 Resource Materials
#7 Curriculum Relevance	#7 Instructional Methodology

APPLICATIONS TO PRACTICE

Perceptions of the students polled have provided administrators and faculty with empirical data supporting the continuation of off-campus programs. The data show that students' perceptions of the quality of their educational experiences are comparable regardless of where the class was taught. Instead, quality is impacted by other variables such as teacher expertise, adult learning environment, and physical parameters. The critical factors provide educators with insights as to what adult learners deem relevant to the quality of their credit classes as they pursue post secondary degrees. Students say the quality of their educational experience depends on the competency, expertise and knowledge of the instructor, respect for the students as competent adults and appropriate class size and environment, regardless of the distance of the class from the main campus.

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IT'S NEVER TOO LATE: SENIOR RACE CAR DRIVERS PARTICIPATION AND LEARNING STYLES OF OLDER ADULTS ENGAGED IN MALIBU GRAND PRIX RACE CAR COMPETITION

Dr. Daniel Rosenberg, Gayle Workman, Dr. Barbara Nelson

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the various issues related to participation patterns and learning styles of a group of senior citizens actively engaged in Malibu Grand Prix race car driving. Many older adults have been socialized to believe that physical activity is inappropriate or dangerous. The seven participants in this study represent a minority who have chosen to learn a new skill and engage in a physically demanding activity. Their motivation to learn is closely linked to theories on adult learning that speak to personal meaning making and relevancy as key aspects of the adult cognitive learning process. These individuals saw a direct relationship between race car driving and issues of self-esteem, social interaction and quality of life. A paradox that arose concerned the general belief by the majority of participants that they could benefit from a traditional classroom experience when in fact most acknowledged that they learned the most about race car driving through hands-on experience and feedback.

INTRODUCTION

One of the popular assumptions surrounding the activity patterns of senior citizens is the notion that engagement in regular forms of physical activity is somehow inappropriate, perhaps even dangerous, for individuals who reach certain advanced ages. The supposition is that as physiological slowing down occurs the desire to maintain an active lifestyle also diminishes. This perception can become a self-fulfilling prophesy, and the sad reality is that many who might wish to be active in their senior years are socialized into inactive lifestyles they believe to be appropriate (Berger, 1989).

Another widely held mis-perception in our culture is that learning is a formalized process that exists within the virtually exclusive domain of classrooms and educational settings. A conferred degree symbolizes for many the end of the formal educational experience. Although there are opportunities for continuing education for many adults, these programs are often extensions of mainstream pedagogical models. In reality, however, the more self-directed, andragogical styles of learning, that characterize adult education, occur in a multitude of settings ranging far from the classroom. Much of this learning occurs in recreation and leisure contexts (Knowles, 1980).

The purpose of our study was to examine the activity patterns and learning processes of a group of older adults engaged in Malibu Grand Prix Race Car Driving in Columbus, Ohio. Malibu Grand Prix racing is an activity that has become widely popular among people of all ages. It features a scaled down track and miniaturized race cars. In addition to racing cars, the facility also has video games, a snack bar and observation area. The activities are open to the public for a charge. Participants must purchase a license at the track and then can use the cars on a pay-per-lap basis. There is a large digital clock in the middle of the track that keeps the time of each racer. The senior racing is sponsored by the Columbus Recreation and Parks department through its various senior centers. The program is seven years old and was started by the former director of the Barber Rosilea senior center located in Clintenville.

The majority of senior centers in Columbus have racing teams that compete against each other. The participants from each center race once a week and keep weekly records of their times which are used to calculate a running score between the centers. Their are two major, city-wide competitions in which teams are fielded from each center and they compete head to head. Both men and women compete in approximately equal numbers.

An underlying assumption guiding this study was that because of the elective nature of the activity and age of the participants, the purposes and goals for learning were fundamentally unique to members of this population. The central research question was:

A. What issues facilitate the teaching/learning process for members of the older age group?

Related questions were:
B. What is the motivation for learning a new activity?
C. What reward do members gain from participation?
D. What teaching styles are most favorably utilized?
E. What level of proficiency do members wish to attain?

DATA COLLECTION

Data for this study were collected by traditional qualitative methodology. In-depth interviews represented the primary source of data. Seven seniors who participate in Malibu Grand Prix Racing through one of the senior centers were selected for this study from a larger pool of seventeen center participants. A standardized open-ended interview format allowed for comparisons among the participants as well as individual case study analysis.

In addition to the formal interviews, numerous on-site observations were conducted at the track, the senior center, and various restaurants where the Malibu group met after racing. Field notes were taken and informal interviews occurred on an on-going basis. These helped provide an invaluable descriptive context.

RESULTS/DISCUSSION

The seven participants for this study were all white retirees over sixty years old. They ranged in socio-economic status from low to high middle class. Five were female and two were male. The men were married to two of the women in the study, one woman was married to someone not in the study, and two women were widowed. While all the participants lived on fixed incomes the two single women felt the most financially constrained. All the participants had held jobs and each had some form of advanced education, either professional or technical.

One aspect that stands out among the seniors who participate in Malibu Racing is that they represent a small percentage of senior center members and an even smaller percentage of the overall retirement population. A common characteristic of all the participants in this study was that they had not bought into the "myth" of old age and the put-out-to-pasture syndrome. Despite the physical demands their activity placed on them, particularly in terms of upper body strength, none of them believed that race car driving was something they could not or should not do. "We certainly aren't couch potatoes" one remarked.

All the participants seemed to enjoy the novelty of the activity and the resultant attention they received for engaging in it. The group had been the subject of several newspaper and television features, and all the participants had scrapbooks that they proudly displayed at the drop of a hat. The senior center to which they belonged had a "Malibu Room" that featured trophies and other memorabilia. Those participants with children and grandchildren indicated that they had the full support of their families; one discussed in some detail how she had been the subject of one of her grandchild's school reports, proudly reporting that the child "wanted to grow up to be just like grandma".

This receptiveness to the attention Malibu racing generated seemed to fill a need for some to stave off the marginalized feeling older people in our culture sometimes get after they retire. The activity kept them in the "spotlight" and allowed them to identity with something active. One of the female participants discussed this when she expressed her difficulty in adjusting to the loss of her professional identity which had been based on her job:

> I was very tied into my work. I felt it was important and made a difference to people. It's been a struggle for me to find things to do that are important

LEARNING

Some of the issues surrounding the learning process of the senior citizens associated with Malibu Racing are linked closely to both adult learning theories and developmental cognitive psychology (Mezirow, 1978, Perry, 1981, Kurfiss, 1977) and yet members of this group do not fall neatly into developmental models which tend to be linear and involve passing through stages. To some degree they move fluidly among the varying stages of learning and at times appear to be simultaneously in several such stages. The subtlety and complexity of this process should not be underestimated. As learners, these individuals are reflective and articulate and can discuss their learning process comfortably and with ease.

Consistent with what is known about adult learners, the issues of personal meaning and relevancy are very important to these people. The connection between learning the skills of racing and the broader context of the worlds they live in is very significant to them. Not one of them is learning how simply to acquire the skills of racing, but performing well is an important issue to almost all of them. They all identify "companionship", "friendship" and "camaraderie" as the most rewarding aspects of participation and in only a half-joking fashion they point to the group lunches they all attend after racing as being the most significant aspect of the activity ("We love to eat", one commented).

When pressed to discuss how they learn, what kind of students they consider themselves and what kinds of learning environments they respond best to, the respondents were both illuminating and paradoxical. A majority said they learned the most technical skill from individuals in one-on-one settings while on the track. One seventy-two year old woman remarked on the advice of a single individual:

> He helps us a lot at the track. He told us little tricks like when your back wheels cross the line you should stay back as far as you can and at the end step on the gas. A lot of people forget how to do that.

While admitting that their best learning occurred when they received direct feedback while getting the "feel" for racing at the track they also displayed a philosophical commitment to some traditional pedagogical techniques that they also identified as flawed. During the data collection period for this study several classroom sessions were held by members of the group to help educate and improve the skills of those members who wanted to better their times (interestingly, the "teachers" during these session were the highly skilled men who had the best times and the "students" were all women). These classroom sessions were typified by lectures in which the more experienced male participants would discuss appropriate driving techniques in association with different curves on the track. While everyone involved acknowledged the potential benefit of these classroom meetings (called "skull" sessions by one of the participants) few actually believed them to be helpful. As the same seventy-two year old woman pointed out:

> ...and the session we had today. I sit in on those every year. Bob, Jack and Dave are really good racers and I listen to them but when you get out there racing you don't think about those things.

The prevailing feeling held by the students of these sessions was that they attend them because this is what formal learning looks like and they want to learn how to be better racers, but that on some gut level they understand that they improve as racers and acquire more practical racing knowledge when the process is more individualized, hands on, and something applied more directly to their needs.

In the final analysis the motivation to learn remains perhaps the single strongest influence to acquiring skills. These people have a lot invested in Malibu racing. Issues of self-esteem, gender equity, quality of life and social interaction all come into play. Bonding, togetherness and mutual support are very strong. These people feel very good about their experience. One of the male racers stated it best:

Senior Malibu racers live longer as a group. Malibu makes you stay up with living and that's the whole thing I think of staying young when you grow a little bit older.

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ADULT VOCATIONAL STUDENT DROPOUT AND RETENTION IN OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

Little is known about the full- time adult vocational student seeking job- specific training. This population of adults is expected to continue to grow because of rapidly changing technology, increased work skills and knowledge needed on the job, and the retraining necessary from plant closings and layoffs. This study was conducted to describe the nontraditional adult students attending full-time, occupationally specific vocational training programs in the state of Ohio and to develop a dropout prediction model of enrolled students using sets of independent variables adapted and revised from a conceptual model of nontraditional student attrition developed by Johnson (1991).

Data were collected via a random cluster sample from a questionnaire mailed to all students enrolled in the randomly selected full- time, occupationally specific adult vocational programs (n=376). A six-point Likert- type scale was used to measure 20 independent variables. Background/demographic information was also collected.

Dropouts comprised 17% of the population. The population was predominantly white, female, and approximately 35 years old. The majority received outside agency funding primarily from Pell grants and JTPA. Almost one-half of the dropouts and over one-third of the completers were receiving food stamps. About 40% of the students had a total household income of less than $10,000.

Using Multivariate Discriminant Analysis, eight variables were found to be significant in predicting dropout and completion. Of those eight, five were found to indicate a tendency to complete: Course/Schedule, Outside Agency Support, Instructor Abilities, Interpersonal Relationships, and Academic Ability/Habits. Three variables were found to indicate a tendency to dropout: Finances/Employment, Physical Disability, Family Responsibilities.

Other factors found to have an association with completion but were not part of the prediction model were: Goal Commitment/Utility, Self Esteem, Outside Encouragement, Program Policies, Support Services/Counseling, and Relationship w/Instructor. Showing an association with dropouts was Stress. None of the background variables of Age, Gender, Race or Marital Status indicted an association with dropouts or completers.

INTRODUCTION

A strong back, the willingness to work, and a high school diploma were once all that was needed to make a start in America" (U.S. Dept. of Labor, 1991, p.1). That is no longer true. Work is changing, and the students of yesterday - today's adult workforce - may not be able to survive in the world of work with their present skills and abilities. High performance workplaces become a model for success in the future. "...work is problem- oriented, flexible, and organized in teams; labor is not a cost but an investment" (U.S. Dept. of Labor, 1991, p.3). These new high performance workplaces demand a better educated, better skilled worker.

The President is challenging Americans to "go back to school" and make this a "nation of students" (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1991). But the duration of time spent in a training program must be long enough to acquire a skill well enough to secure employment or increase competency levels to meet the increased job demands. Some students drop out of their training before acquiring sufficient skills for advancement or the procurement of work. Insufficient attention has been directed to the difficulties many of these nontraditional students experience in attempting to complete a vocational training program. A better understanding of this population will assist vocational educators and planners in providing the proper environment to meet the special needs of this adult population and thereby increase the chances for program completion.

Adult vocational education is essential to all who seek it, but completion of the training program becomes vitally crucial to the fulfillment of the ultimate goal of employability. Believing and understanding the need for participation in these programs is not the problem. The problem lies in keeping students long enough to teach them skills well enough for them to garner employment, keep employment, or advance on the job.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To date, little is known about the full- time adult vocational student seeking job- specific training. Statistics from the Ohio Division of Vocational and Career Education show that approximately 8,000 adults are served through this method of vocational education, but little demographic information has ever been collected which would allow an insight into the problems, concerns, and needs of these students. An even more serious omission of data is the number of students who leave these programs without completing their occupational training or securing a job in the area of training for which they were enrolled. Why do these students leave? Are they employed? Could they have been retained?

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purposes of this study were (1) to describe the nontraditional adult students (N=8010 students) attending full- time, occupationally specific vocational training programs (N=534 programs) in the state of Ohio, and (2) to develop a dropout prediction model of enrolled students using sets of independent variables adapted and revised from the Conceptual Model of Nontraditional Student 'Attrition and Persistence in Post secondary Vocational Education Programs developed by Johnson (1991).

THEORETICAL CONSTRUCT

Johnson (1991), in an extensive review of vocational post secondary attrition, found that major contributions to the understanding of student attrition in post secondary education evolved from two-year and four-year college and university settings. Generalizing these findings to vocational education settings becomes problematic. Not only do the nontraditional adult students differ in their goals, background, characteristics, and achievement levels, their education orientation is toward job-specific training and not general education or college preparatory. Further, post secondary vocational training is usually shorter in length than the two- or four-year institutions used most often in post secondary attrition studies. Therefore, the differences in socio-demographics, education orientation, and program length coupled with the fact that most of the students attending post secondary vocational training are nontraditional students, the need for a model specific to the characteristics and backgrounds of this population is necessary. Johnson (1991) has attempted to construct such a model, a portion of which was utilized in this study with some minor revisions.

In the Johnson Proposed Conceptual Model there were four proposed sets of independent variables labeled Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Factors with subsets of variables under each category. Through an intense content analysis these variables were condensed into the sets of independent variables shown in Figure 1 and were used as shown for testing in this study. The four categories of variable sets in the revised model represented four constructs which were comprised of the independent variables listed under each of the headings. All variables listed under the headings became separate independent variables used in testing for significance and determining inclusion in a discriminant analysis procedure.

METHODOLOGY

The study was an ex-post-facto static-group comparison design and utilized the survey method of data collection. Data were collected with a survey instrument developed by the investigator. The instrument was designed to measure several independent variables shown through the literature to have significance between dropouts and completers. It was submitted to a panel of experts,

field tested, and pilot tested. Chronbach's alpha was used on each set of items comprising the fifteen independent variables. The alpha levels ranged from .60 to .96. A test/retest strategy was also used to test reliability over time and yielded a range of .50 to .93. Descriptive statistics were used to organize, summarize, and analyze the differences between groups. Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to determine the best predictor(s) of the dependent variable, completion status (dropout or completer), using the selected variables for the purpose of constructing a prediction model.

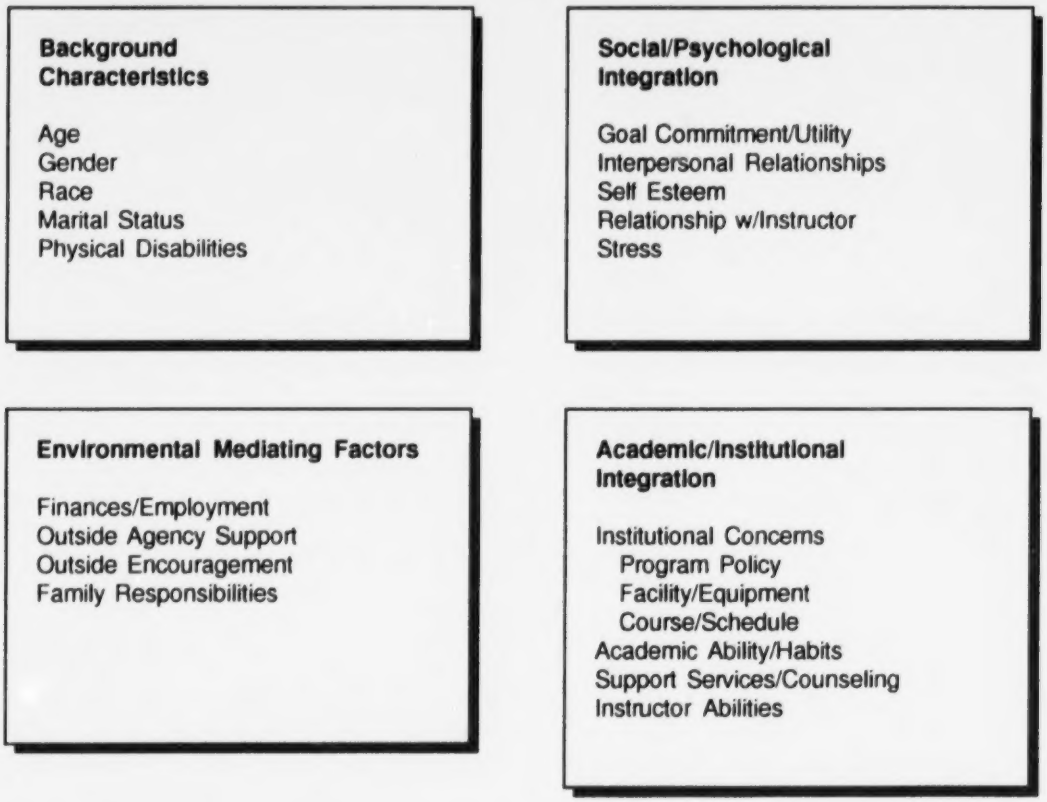

Figure 1. Revised model comprising the independent variables sets used for testing student dropout/completion in adult vocational, job specific training programs in the state of Ohio.

The response rate was 74 percent. In order to allow generalization to the target population, two methods of handling non-response were used: (1) nonrespondents were compared with respondents on known characteristics, and (2) randomly selected nonrespondents were contacted by phone and asked to answer those items on the questionnaire which showed significant differences between dropouts and completers. T-tests were used in the comparison and both methods indicated no significant differences between nonrespondents and respondents at an alpha level of .05

RESULTS

The results of the discriminant analysis procedure indicated that eight variables were the most significant in predicting dropout and completion in adult vocational job specific training programs in the state of Ohio: Course/Schedule, Finances/ Employment, Outside Agency Support, Instructor Abilities, Physical Disability, Interpersonal Relationships, Academic Ability/Habits, and Family Responsibilities.

In relation to the variable sets proposed by the Johnson Model (1991) and also in accordance with the Bean and Metzner Model (1985) all four variable sets remain in this prediction model; however, their composition has changed greatly. As shown in Figure 2, Background Characteristics contains only the variable Physical Disabilities. This variable was determined to be associated with students who dropped out of their training programs.

The variable set Social/Psychological Integration also contains only one variable that is significantly related to completion of training programs, Interpersonal Relationships. The variable set, Environmental Mediating Factors, proved to be one of the two most discriminating sets of variables between dropouts and completers. Remaining in this variable set after testing were Finances/Employment and Family Responsibilities, both of which were associated with students who dropped out, and Outside Agency Support, which was correlated with students who completed.

The other most discriminating set of variables was Academic/Institutional Integration. The most distinguishing variable (as shown by the highest standardized discriminant function coefficient) was Course/Schedule. This variable was correlated with completion, which would indicate the importance of placing students in their area of interest and ability. Also in this variable set was Academic Ability/Habits, which followed true to form with the many research studies involving attrition: students' grades and abilities matter significantly in persistence to complete. The other variable found to be distinguishing between dropouts and completers was Instructor Abilities. Completion was more evident among those students who felt the instructor used methodology which was helpful to their learning, cared about their progress, and demonstrated acceptable ability of teaching.

Using the variables shown in Figure 2, 22% of the variance between dropouts and completers could be explained. Also, from this revised model, 76% of the cases were correctly classified (75% of the completers and 79% of the dropouts).

Figure 2. Independent variables found to have a significant association with dropout and completion among adult students in full-time, job specific vocational training programs. The asterisk denotes those found to be discriminating in the prediction model.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. As Course/Schedule was one of the most important discriminating variables, placing students in a course that is interesting, appropriate, and properly scheduled is vital. All students should be assessed in the areas of abilities, interests, and needs.

2. Handicapped students should be monitored regularly to ascertain not only if their special physical needs are being met, but that they acquire feelings of "fitting in" and experience aspects of socialization with other class members.

3. The quality of teaching performance and the care instructors show their students is important, therefore, all adult instructors should receive ongoing preservice and in-service training to keep them current and aware of the needs of this adult population.

4. Andragogical teaching techniques for instructors is important. As Instructor Abilities ability, methods, and concern for students) was an important discriminating variable, determining what is important in meeting the needs of adult students in terms of methodology, expectations, and unique characteristics and needs
becomes necessary.
5. As a student's academic ability and performance are significant to completion, there is a distinct need to further develop adult basic academic skills along with, or prior to, enrollment in adult programs. A unit on "how to study" may also prove helpful.

6. In view of the findings regarding disabilities, finances, employment and family responsibilities, it is critical that information be gathered regarding students' personal, family and financial needs. Appropriate support and counseling services should be provided for the student.

7. Business and education linkages should be formed not only to alert the public sector of effective skill training being offered, but as potential placement sites for students completing their training program. Placement statistics become important to the relevancy of course offerings.

8. Establish business linkages that might assist with the financial needs of students preparing skills necessary to their business or industry. Early job placement, co-ops, or apprenticeships might be possible.

9. Time should be allotted during the training program to allow students to get acquainted with one another, possibly a monthly get- together at lunch or other social activity to encourage friendships as these interpersonal relationship tend to encourage completion. Instructors should be part of that socialization and viewed as a resource person in the environment as opposed to a dominant provider of information. The instructor's concern for the student, if genuine, can assist in the student's completion of the program.

Adults will be entering institutions of education of every kind as our country becomes a worldwide competitor in a technological market. This should impact the manner in which we advise, train, and educate adults. However, regardless of the decisions we as professional vocational educators make, if they are not made on the basis of sound research and implemented to reflect our new gained knowledge, adults will continue to refuse to participate or continue to dropout until we do so.

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Continuing Education/Professional Development

CONTINUING EDUCATION/PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTINUING EDUCATION/PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In a world that is constantly changing, where technology is rapidly advancing and where new information is being created daily, staying abreast of the changes in one's occupation or profession is no longer a luxury but a necessity. In a time when job terminations often strike without warning, when worker layoffs are rampant, and the word downsizing is heard daily, those workers who have continued to update their skills, to stay abreast of the current trends and changes in their fields are the ones most likely to emerge successfully from these often devastating events.

Nearly every major corporation, professional association or organization has become involved in providing some type of educational activity for its constituents in order to keep them abreast of the new information and new technology. The educational experiences of these groups are most concerned with providing continuing education for its members. Whether it is labeled as staff development, productivity enhancement, or professional development, workers are constantly being asked to learn more and educators are increasingly being asked to provide continuing education courses and training ranging from one day workshops to advanced graduate studies. Some professions such as law and medicine have long provided continuing education courses for its members who need additional courses for re-certification or licensure.

However, according to Cervero in the Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education (1990) continuing education for professional development did not emerge as a field of study and practice until the late 1960's. While the number and types of providers of continuing education has grown, the responsibility of enhancing the educational studies and activities will be left to the adult, continuing and community educators.

The contents of this section will examine the reasons why professional development is a necessity, why the role of the continuing educator and administrator will be so vital as we approach the twenty-first century. We will look at the tools that educators and administrators can use to enhance their professional practice.

R.T. Bothel's " National Perspective of Computer Competencies for Administrators of Adult Basic Education Programs" examines the skills of administrators to determine our readiness for the future. As technology change and as we prepare workers for the future, those who are responsible for educational programs and training must be prepared and educated to teach these technological skills. J. H. McElhinney's "Personnel Evaluation in Adult and Community Education" focuses on what could be a powerful tool for educators and administrators if properly designed and used.

M.J. Morgan Sanders paper "Attitudes about Continuing Education among Kansas Long-Term Care Registered Nurses" provides us with a view into the attitudes of a group of long term care registered nurses toward continuing education. From a profession that has long provided continuing education courses, we will see the effects of making continuing education courses mandatory.

"Leadership Practices of Mega-Church Pastors" by T. D. Zook will compare and contrast the leadership styles of successful pastors with those of successful businessmen. An analysis of the need for leadership training for pastors, church board members and others interested in developing effective leadership skills and increasing church attendance are discussed.

The research that is presented in this section will provide us with the information that is necessary to enhance the field of continuing education for professional development. Practitioners in adult, continuing and community education will discover new insights into a newly emerging field of research and practice. Just as it is a necessity for other professional to stay current of new information and trends in the field, we as adult, continuing and community educators must set the

example by seeking additional opportunities for professional development in order to advance the research and practice of adult, continuing and community education.

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A NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF COMPUTER COMPETENCIES FOR ADMINISTRATORS OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM

Richard Thomas Bothel

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to enlarge the information base that can be used by practitioners in the field of adult education to determine important computer competencies for individual development, training, and staff development programs for administrators of adult basic education programs. The final result of this study was a listing of computer competencies ranked as to their relative importance to each other based on the judgment of State Directors of Adult Education throughout the United States. The study results are presented to not be a rigid listing of prioritized competencies, but instead, to be general and current trends in ABE administrator computer competency needs as determined by State Directors of Adult Education.

The general research question that was investigated by this study was: What computer competencies are needed by administrators of adult basic education programs to meet the educational requirements of adults in the twenty-first century? There are two specific research questions that were answered: 1) What are the computer competencies that experts in technology and/or adult basic education judge are important to the successful educational administrator? and 2) How do State Directors of Adult Education rank the importance of these competencies in terms of the needs of local adult basic education administrators in their respective states?

These questions are answered by exploring, describing, and comparing information using both the analytical and survey approach to determining competencies. The analytical approach consisted of a review of literature and interview of experts in adult education and/or technology to establish a listing of 77 potential computer competencies for administrators of adult basic education programs. The democratic approach consisted of a national survey of State Directors of Adult Education throughout the United States and including Washington, D. C.

Eight percent of the State Directors of Adult Education responded providing their judgment as to the importance of each of the 77 computer competencies. The outcome of the study is a rank ordered list of important computer competencies for adult basic education administrators along with the survey write-in comments provided by State Directors of Adult Education.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The general research question that was investigated by this study was: "What computer competencies are needed by administrators of adult basic education programs to meet the educational requirements of adults in the twenty-first century? There are two specific research questions that were answered:

1. What are the computer competencies that experts in technology and/or adult basic education judge are important to the successful educational administrator?

2. How do State Directors of Adult Education rank the importance of these competencies in terms of the needs of local adult basic education administrators in their respective states"?

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.

Aggressive educational goals, such as the one outlined above in former President George Bush's America 2000 program (America 2000, 1991), support the optimistic vision of many adult

educators. Sylvia Charp (1992), editor of the Technological Horizons in Education Journal, explains in a recent editorial that to help communities succeed with America 2000 goals, the training needs of the decision maker--the administrator--cannot be ignored.
Administrators of adult basic education programs assume the important role of directing the educational future of an increasing number of citizens. Improving education implies a need for generating and disseminating information and bringing informed judgment to bear on the decision making process (Adelson, Alkin, Carey, 8 Helmer, 1967). The use of computers in educational administration is becoming more and more important in directing effective educational programs (Kearsley,1990). Computer competencies for school administrators to support change in the educational system need to be developed (Ivens,1986).

METHODOLOGY

The methodology used in this study consisted of an analytical review of literature to establish a baseline list of competencies for ABE administrators. Existing research in computer competencies for administrators of K-12 educational programs was used to establish a proposed list of potential competencies for adult basic education administrators. These competencies were then reviewed with seven experts in the field of educational technology and/or adult basic education to validate the instrument for use in part two of the study.

The second part of the study took this research base and asked state directors of adult education to review its importance to practice. The survey approach was used to rank important computer competencies of ABE administrators. Eighty percent of the state directors in the United States responded with their judgment of importance and the competencies were placed in rank order.

STAGE OF RESEARCH

This research was completed in the fall of 1992. The ranking of competencies and frequency distribution was used as the foundation for a doctoral dissertation at Ball State University. Demographic information and casual analysis has not been published.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

A prioritized listing of competencies was created for use by practitioners to make their own judgments about trends and directions for development of personal computer competencies. The study was qualitative in nature, but there are a number of questions about which answers are suggested:

1. Are computer competencies important to administrators of adult basic education programs?
2. What is the most important area of computer competencies?
3. What about the human side of computer competencies?
4. Are there any functional competencies that clearly seem most important?
5 Was there clear disagreement among directors as to the importance of any competencies?
6. What is the impact of new technologies?

APPLICATION TO PRACTICE

The study was based on the premise that an analytical approach to research can be used to establish a baseline of information that can be used by practitioners in the field of adult education. The study uses literature and experts in the field to provide basic information that is then evaluated by state directors who are practicing in the field of adult education.

This study is one of the few studies done on computer competencies for local school administrators and is the only study that could be identified specifically for administrators of adult basic education. The field of adult basic education continues to expand with the emphasis on literacy and workforce training to develop adults to their fullest potential. Administrators of adult

basic education programs assume the important role of directing the educational future of an increasing number of citizens. As the United States further enters the age of information and technology, interest in computer competencies will continue growing and changing, and competencies will continually need to be developed.

RESULTS

There were ten computer competencies that received mean rankings over 4.00 . These were: 1) Identify the computer training needs of teachers and staff, 2) Identify the administrative tasks that can be computerized, 3) Understand the changing roles of teachers and students in learning, 4) Understand the role of the computer in individualzing instruction, 5) Recognize some different approaches to staff development and computer training, 6) Know some ways to implement an integrated program for computers in education, 7) Appreciate what management tasks can be facilitated with a computer, 8) Understand the concept of word processing, 9) Understand how computers can be used to increase student motivation, and 10) Understand how computers have affected work.

Receiving the lowest ratings of importance were: 1) Describe why these languages can be significant to the teacher (mean 2.63), 2) Know why Logo is generally taught (mean 2.62), and 3) Understand how BASIC contrasts with Logo (mean 2.5) were at the bottom of the rankings. This is consistent with earlier studies. In fact, these competencies were only included in this survey because two experts interviewed in the analytical portion of this study concluded that the competencies had value.

The top ranked competencies related to identification of training needs and administrative tasks that could be computerized. Individualized instruction, changing roles of teaching and learning, staff development and implementation of computer programs in education all were areas that received high rankings. There was only one "functional" competency that made the top ten competencies (with ratings over 4.00) -- word processing. Understanding the concept of word processing received an average rating of 4.07.

New technologies that were listed in the questionnaire did not receive high ratings. "Optical discs such as CDs" was one of the highest ranked of the "new technologies", but it only received an average ranking of 3.26. Other new technology concepts receive moderate rankings: telecommunications, 3.28; artificial intelligence/expert systems, 3.22; imaging, 3.08; hypermedia, 2.9; and virtual reality, 2.87. This contrasts to the write-in comments discussed below that recognized the importance of technologies such as telecommunications and television. This supports the idea that there are only a few Directors that understand the importance of technological innovation in adult basic education.

Ten of the eighteen write-in comments were very similar to the items in the survey. There were several comments that identified a specific technology that is in use and of particular interest to the respondent such as slow-scan video or broadcast television competencies.

The human side of technology was emphasized by comments such as "Understand the appropriate uses of computers as teaching tools and not as substitutes for "teachers" and "overcoming other students fear of computers".

CONCLUSION

"It would be difficult to say that 'any' computer competency is unimportant," was a response made by one of the experts interviewed for this study. This thought is consistent with the judgment of the majority of State Directors of Adult Education in the United States. Fifty-four percent of the State Directors of Adult Education indicated that computer competencies were of high importance and valuable. There were only two Directors whose average rank of computer competencies was in the "1-2" category (low or no importance). The 80 percent response rate of the survey also is an indicator of the interest and importance field leadership places with computer

competencies. There is increasing recognition that computers can provide increased access to the information that is necessary to survive in today's changing world (Wumman,1990) .

Practitioners should use this data to draw their own judgments about trends and directions for development of personal computer competencies, but there are a number of questions that are answered by the study:

Are computer competencies important to administrators of adult basic education programs?

The majority of State Directors of Adult Education (54 percent) gave an average rank of 4 to computer competencies. Although averages can be misleading, averages can be used to determine general directions of the judgments of Directors. Over half of the Directors felt that computer competencies have "at least close" to a "high importance" based on the rating scale of 1 to 5 in the survey. Another way to look at the answer to this question is that an additional 42 percent of the Directors gave an average rank of 3 (medium importance) to this competency. This means that only 4 percent of the Directors felt that computer competencies, in general, were of "low" or "no" importance. It is therefore possible to say that computer competencies are important to the administrator of an adult basic education program based on the judgment of State Directors of Adult Education in the United States.

What is the most important area of computer competencies?

The most important category of computer competencies was "Computer Implementation." Areas included were:

Identify teacher training needs
Identify administrative tasks to computerize
Approaches to staff development and computers
Identify management functions to computerize
Implement integrated computer programs

When these categories are compared to the training and individual development done in education over the past years, there seems to be limited similarity. Most training in computer competencies has been in the area of traditional computer literacy (computer operations) or being able to perform operational management functions of the computer. This type of training may or may not add to a person's ability to "implement computer programs in education. This study substantiates the need for higher level skills to be developed in "computer implementation" areas. Management, planning, goal setting, needs assessment, and evaluation are the types of areas that need to be emphasized in training and development programs. Computer competency training should not just be how to operate a computer. Applications and "what to do with a computer" should be emphasized. A second category that was rated to be close in importance to "implementation" was "Computer-Assisted and Computer-Managed Instruction" (CAI/CMI). Although discussions in areas such as CAI have been common in the past, this high rating was unexpected in light of moderate ratings of this category in earlier research. CAI/CMI was clearly ranked above the seven other categories including a category judged by experts in this study to be important--Issues and the Future. It could be argued that the reason for this high importance rating is because of the funding support and increasing amount of software available in this area. Whatever the reason, CAI is definitely important to State Directors of Adult Education based not only on these ranking results but also supported by the write-in comments in the survey.

What about the human side of computer competencies?

Human considerations were included in the top ten computer competencies rated. The roles of teachers and students, computers in the workplace and the use of computers to increase student motivation were areas listed at the top of the list with ratings over 4-high performance. This is consistent with the overall high rating of implementation categories. The emphasis that State Directors of Adult Education judged important was the area of what computers <u>can do</u> as opposed

to how computers do it. This emphasis also supports emphasis of higher level management skills in "computer" training as opposed to computer literacy.

Are there any functional competencies that clearly seem most important?

The only functional competency that was listed in the top ten was word processing. State Directors of Adult Education rated "understanding the concept of word processing" as one of the most important competencies (rated 4.07-high importance). This is consistent with earlier research and is also consistent with the theory that the more people are familiar with a particular technology, the more they will use the technology and understand its importance. The concept of "familiarity breeds importance and usage" is also supported with the low rankings of the newer technologies that were included in the survey (Virtual reality ranked 69th, HyperCard ranked 70th). Further H is interesting to note that the "publishing" category was ranked very low in the survey. This raises the question of what the Directors' concept of "word processing" really was.

Was there clear disagreement among directors as to the importance of any competencies?

As was noted in the "Areas for Further Research" portion of this chapter, there was some variation in the ascending or descending percentage distribution of ratings in relative position to each other, but with only 4 percent of the rankings in the "low" or "no" importance category, it would be difficult to argue that there was wide division in any area. Most ratings fell between in the 3 and 4 categories. This leads to the conclusion that major disagreement did not exist. Of the highest ten rated categories, there was a slightly higher dispersion of rankings in competency number sixty-five: "Understand how computers have affected work". Because of the area this competency deals with, this fact is one that is important to note. Forty-one percent of the Directors thought that understanding the impact of the computer on work was "extremely important" (5). Yet, 26 percent thought it was of moderate importance (3) or below. This pulled this competency's ranking down to an average of 4.05 or tenth place. Although it was clear that a large number of Directors recognize the high importance of the computer in the workplace, it is noteworthy that over one-fourth of the Directors appear to think the computer's impact on work was not important. This is difficult to understand in light of the impetus from "America 2000" goals and the increasing interest in workplace training. This suggests that it is not only important to provide additional education as to applications of computers in education, but also more training may be needed to help adult education leaders understand the overall effect of the computer on society and the workplace.

What is the impact of new technologies?

It was disappointing to see the low level of importance assigned to new technologies. There has been common agreement that it is not necessary to be able to understand programming language to use a computer effectively, and it was expected that this "language" competency would receive a low rating. It was not expected to see competency areas such as HyperCard (2.9 mean) and virtual reality (2.87) receive mean rankings of less than "medium importance (3-Ranking)" and be in the lowest ten competencies in importance. The high interest expressed by Directors in computer-assisted and managed instruction was encouraging. This interest may, however, be more of a reflection of national trends in educational technology's promotional programs, than a real understanding of the potential for computer support in the classroom. There are an increasing number of programs in computer-based instruction that have special funding available. Financial support may be as much a driving force as anything to encourage the assigning of importance to computer use in the classroom.

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PERSONNEL EVALUATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes a model for the evaluation of professional personnel for use in strengthening adult education programs that generates personnel evaluation evidence with staff development activities. With an appropriate personnel evaluation model and needed developmental experiences, evaluators and professionals in adult education will develop the competencies needed to maintain and strengthen personnel and organizational performance. Improved performance will build enthusiasm directly for the organization's program among employees and indirectly among those the program serves.

Deciding what behaviors to evaluate, collecting needed evidence and judging the "merit, worth and quality" (Scriven, 1991) of some of the contributions a professional has made to the organization is a series of complex tasks. Frequent meetings of professionals, in groups of three or four, personnel with their evaluator-supervisor, in a series of staff development activities can both improve the quality of a professional's performance and generate much of the evidence needed as a basis for making constructive judgments regarding personnel performance. The combined evaluation and staff development process is described in detail below.

INTRODUCTION

Persons responsible for implementing personnel evaluation seldom receive the development needed to become competent at implementing constructive evaluation. Nor do their job descriptions allow the time needed to implement quality personnel evaluation. Finally, evaluators do not get the supervision and deserved rewards for constructively evaluating their supervisees.

Persons to be evaluated seldom receive the development needed to participate constructively in their own evaluation, to do their part to make the process constructive.

PURPOSES

The purposes of personnel evaluation can be grouped under two headings. The most frequent purpose is to improve performance of employees, individually and collectively. This purpose can be divided again into two activities. Improving performance includes examining the evidence collected during the immediate past evaluation period for the purpose of celebrating and rewarding past achievements and identifying areas needing attention. The celebration over, the same evidence is used as one basis, but certainly not the only basis, for planning what the evaluatee will do during the next evaluation period. Since most organizations are the products of the achievements of their personnel, evaluation evidence from all program personnel can be combined to serve as a major component in planning the future of the organization.

The other major purpose of evaluation is for administrative purposes. One administrative use of personnel evaluation is accountability, reporting the achievements and the limitations of individuals to those who administer and those who govern the program. Evidence gathered through personnel evaluation is needed for other administrative purposes including serving as basis for decisions regarding promotion, tenure, assignment of future responsibilities and occasionally, retention or dismissal.

PRINCIPLES OF PERSONNEL EVALUATION

1. Personnel evaluation can not be comprehensive! As professional s work with numerous persons they produce many complex outcomes. Personnel evaluation must be a sampling, based on a few, six to ten, of all of the outcomes to which a professional makes major and identifiable contributions.

2. Personnel evaluation must be individualized! It is accurate that most people work as members of a group, contributing to but not completely responsible for major program outcomes. Evaluation of groups is necessary and wise. But personnel evaluation cannot end there. Of all human interpersonal transactions personnel evaluation is one transaction that must, eventually, be individualized.

3. One of the principles that appears, almost universally, in principles of personnel evaluation is that a professional should know ahead of time, what is expected. This sounds logical and just, and, sometimes, is true in general terms. But plans made near the beginning of the evaluation period always are best guesses about the future. Often, we do not see the future clearly. I am a strong supporter of planning but always with the understanding that plans will need to be changed as conditions change. When unanticipated events occur evaluation plans must change to meet them. Often, in personnel evaluation, changed conditions require that the outcome statements or behaviors acceptable as evidence of quality need to be modified during the evaluation period.

MODEL FOR EVALUATION OF PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

ASSUMPTIONS: The model for evaluation of a professional builds on several assumptions:
1. the evaluatee is employed by an organization and reports to a supervising employee, competent to conduct staff development, who has responsibilities, not only to the evaluatee, but also to the organization, and to society.

2. the organization has identified purposes which it must produce to justify its existence.

3. the evaluatee is a professional, competent to contribute to the achievement of the organization's purposes.

4. the evaluatee was selected for employment, from among other qualified professionals, because of her unique individual characteristics such as initiative, creativity, and skills at stimulating quality in the efforts of co-workers.

5. the employee has a career plan, currently and for the foreseeable future, which coincides with the needs of the organization.

6. the employee makes progress in own career plan as she applies her unique professional and individual competencies, in important ways, to the needs of the organization.

7. the organization uses an evaluation model in which the process is fairly uniform across employees but the content is unique to each employee.

8. the employee, in cooperation with her supervisor, has developed a job description which is;
   a. illustrative of outcomes the employee intends to produce.
   b. <u>not</u> comprehensive. (employees and the organization's leadership know and can only know, in general, what the organization and the individual employee will accomplish in the near and long term).
   c. written by the employee and negotiated with supervisor (employee is a professional committed to the vision of the organization, and knows own strengths and limitations).
   d. stated as outcomes (not inputs nor areas of responsibility).
   e. modified and renegotiated between the employee and the supervisor prior to each evaluation period.

9. evaluation decisions are made cooperatively between the evaluator and the professional but with the evaluator having final decision.

THE PROCESS OF PERSONNEL EVALUATION

1. Near the beginning of the evaluation period, the evaluator and professionals being evaluated will identify, cooperatively, from among the many outcomes the professional will produce, six to ten outcomes on which the employee's evaluation will be based for this evaluation period. Gathering adequate evidence on the limited number of six to ten outcomes will require all the time and attention available for the evaluation of each employee.

2. Some outcomes should be cognitive, some affective and, where appropriate, some should be psycho-motor.

3. Outcome statements will be written as strong positive sentences. For a teacher in a literacy program an example might be; "Learners will be enthusiastic about reading." (an affective outcome statement)

a. The subject of the outcome statement names the individual(s) whose behavior will change if the professional being evaluated is successful. In the example sentence, the individuals whose behaviors will change if the teacher is successful are "learners".
b. The verb in the outcome statement is a strong verb and, often, includes "will". The example verb is "will be".
c. The object in the outcome statement states the acquired behavior. In the example the acquired behavior is enthusiastic about reading".

4. For each of the six to ten outcomes identified, the evaluator and evaluatee will identify three (or some other number) directly observable behaviors that are acceptable as evidence of achievement of the outcome. In practice, behaviors acceptable as evidence are illustrative and may not be behaviors, or not the only behaviors, finally used as evidence of achievement of the outcome.

5. These behaviors acceptable as evidence of achievement of an outcome will guide the collection of evidence during the evaluation period.

6. Behaviors acceptable as evidenced will be written using the same sentence pattern as used for outcome statements. An example of a behavior acceptable as evidence of enthusiasm about reading might be; "Learners will volunteer information about their discretionary reading." This is directly observable behavior. Either it happens or it doesn't.

7. The professional and the evaluator will agree

a. what evidence which will be collected by the professional being evaluated.
b. which evidence will be collected by the evaluator.
c. what sources of evidence will be used by each.
d. what methods will be used to collect the evidence.
e. process used to store accumulated evidence.

PROGRESS MEETINGS

Reaffirming the outcomes on which a professional is to be evaluated and gathering descriptions of behaviors that are acceptable as evidence of progress must be continuous during the evaluation period. Reaffirming outcomes and collecting evidence must involve frequent evaluation progress meetings. Meetings must be frequent enough so that only a limited amount of time need to be spent at the beginning of each meeting for the evaluator or evaluatee in becoming current. Usually, progress meetings must be held for at least an hour every three weeks.

Progress meetings are strengthened when they include three or four evaluatees and the evaluator. Evaluation is still individualized in that each evaluatee in the group makes her own unique contributions to the organization, is responsible for unique outcomes, requires unique evidence that is acceptable as indicators of quality in the outcomes produced. Even though the individuals participating are making unique contributions to the organization, the group's member's, after a few meetings, begin to know and care about some of the important contributions and challenges of other group members. Members soon become a support group based on this knowledge and caring. They also become resource persons and contribute information and competencies to the group that the evaluator may not have. And participating with others provides group members with knowledge and insights into the organization that are helpful to individuals and the organization.

1. Progress meetings, one hour in length, are held between the evaluator and evaluatees every three weeks.

2. Three or four evaluatees will be present and participating at each progress meeting

   a. each evaluatee reports current progress and shares plans for the immediate future.
   b. each evaluatee becomes informed concerning the outcomes and current progress of other evaluatees.
   c. each evaluatee contributes support and suggestions to other evaluatees, celebrating their successes and being supportive when others face challenges.
   d. by participating in progress meetings with others, evaluatees become well informed about parts of the program they would not otherwise know.

3. The evaluator's notes made at each progress meeting;

   a. are separated so each evaluatee receives the information that relates directly to her
   b. record progress reported by each evaluatee. This information becomes part of the accumulation of evidence on the evaluatee's progress toward intended outcomes.
   c. record plans shared by each evaluatee
   d. include suggestions made by the evaluator
   e. include suggestions made by individual professionals to other professionals.

4. Two copies are made of the notes made at progress meetings; (Usually making notes is the responsibility of the evaluator).

   a. one copy, containing the record of her participation and the responses of others, is shared with each professional.
   b. a second copy, containing the record of each professional's participation, is placed in each professional's evaluation file.

5. Comments of the evaluator supporting and instructive, appropriate to individual professionals, are attached to the notes of each professional and shared with and filed with the notes of that professional.

ANOTHER PURPOSE FOR PROGRESS MEETINGS

Frequent progress meetings are necessary for purposes other than keeping evaluator and evaluatees current and generating evidence on which to base evaluation judgments. When the outcomes on which an evaluatee was to be evaluated were set near the beginning of the evaluation period, they were judged to be appropriate by both the evaluatee and evaluator. As time passes, conditions may change and outcomes that earlier seemed very appropriate may no longer be appropriate. Also, behaviors originally identified as evidence of quality in the outcomes may no longer be appropriate. If changes in contexts do occur, frequent meetings provide opportunities to re-examine what earlier seemed wise. Unanticipated changes make it necessary to renegotiate outcomes or evidence are in need of modification or replacement.

SUMMARIZING THE EVALUATION EVIDENCE AND EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES PRODUCED BY EACH PROFESSIONAL

1. Near the close of the evaluation period, each evaluatee summarizes, in about two pages of text, the outcomes she has produced and the evidence accumulated during the evaluation period. She also states her judgment of the "merit, worth or value" of each outcome, and all outcomes collectively, she has produced or of the contributions she has made to outcomes produced in cooperation with others. She also states the criteria she has used in arriving at the judgments she has reached and provides rationale for her judgments.

2. The evaluator also summarizes, in writing, for each professional, the evidence accumulated about each outcome and all outcomes. She also states her judgments of the "merit, worth or value" (Scriven 1990) of the evaluatee's work.

3. Each evaluatee meets with the evaluator and the two summaries are compared. The summaries are reconciled and the evaluator prepares the evaluation report for the evaluation period.

4. To the combined evaluation summary, the evaluator adds commendations for past achievements and recommendations for the future.

5. The evaluatee and evaluator hold a closing meeting in which both sign the final evaluation summary and set a meeting date to establish the outcomes to use in the individual's evaluation for the following evaluation period.

6. There is an appeal process available to evaluatees to be used without prejudice. Since evaluator and evaluatee have worked together, frequently and cooperatively, seldom are there any surprises at the end of the evaluation period.

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ATTITUDES ABOUT CONTINUING EDUCATION AMONG KANSAS LONG-TERM CARE REGISTERED NURSES

Martha J. Morgan Sanders, Ph.D., RN,C

ABSTRACT

The research reported in this paper was an investigation of the attitudes of Kansas long- term care registered nurses toward continuing education. It examined variables which indicated the attitude, i.e., additional academic education, contact hours of continuing education, level of practice, and cost of continuing education to name a few. The data was collected by survey which used the Adult Attitudes Toward Continuing Education Scale (AACES) by Hayes and Darkenwald. The findings suggested additional academic education affected the attitude toward continuing education in a positive manner.

It has been a generally accepted assumption by leaders of professional groups that they will continue in their professional development after completing formal requisites for entry into the professions (Cervero, 1988). Since the late 1950's, the phraseology, "continuing education" has become the watchword or buzzword in professions, including education, law, medicine, and health related professions such as nursing (Houle, 1981).

Nurses have struggled to update their knowledge and skills in the context of a rapid and continued knowledge explosion in health care (Hungler,1985). The dramatic expansion of technology in the health care professions has given impetus to more systematic approaches to assist and to meet the continuing education needs of nurses for competency and protection of the public.

In 1974 the American Nurses' Association (ANA) defined continuing nursing education as:

> planned learning experiences beyond a basic nursing education program. These experiences were designed to promote the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes for the enhancement of nursing practice thus improving health care to the public. (p. 33)

The ANA developed standards for continuing nursing education programs and established a system of voluntary continuing nursing education member recognition in 1976. Then in 1992, the voluntary ANA certification examination was first offered for Continuing Education and Staff Development in acute and long-term care institutions, schools of nursing, health maintenance organizations, free standing community or public health clinics, home health agencies, or occupational health services. The ANA certification provides recognition which "indicates that nurses have met requirements for clinical or functional practice in their specialty field, that they have pursued education beyond their basic nursing preparation, and that they have received the endorsement of their peers" (personal communication, ANA Newsletter, February 25, 1991).

Selby (1990) suggested that "Yesterday, long-term geriatric care nursing was seen as a non-glamorous career, chosen at times by nurses who couldn't 'cut it' in acute care." Zena Herbert, a member of the Washington State Commission on Aging, (American Nurses' Association [ANA], 1991), stated, "Nurses aren't going to go into a field [LTC] in which they can't be proud about what they were doing.. the sky is the limit as far as opportunities for innovation and change" (p. 6).

DESCRIPTION OF THE CONCERN

Attitudes has been the topic of many research studies, but attitudes toward continuing education of long- term care (LTC) registered nurses (RNs) presents a new dimension to the study of continuing education for nurses as well as the LTC field. For the past fifteen years, Kansas RNs have been required to obtain continuing nursing education for the renewal of their license to practice nursing. Many variables have an impact on their attitude toward continuing nursing education (CNE). The paucity in the literature of research information related to the LTC RNs'

attitudes toward CNE and the anecdotal information provides the impetus for a study on attitudes toward CNE among Kansas LTC RNs.

METHODOLOGY

A descriptive research designed study was conducted which utilized the AACES survey questionnaire which was mailed to all Kansas RNs (1172) employed in LTC facilities in May, 1991. A response was received from one or more LTC RNs practicing in 52.2% of the Kansas LTC facilities, and an overall response rate of 28% from all LTC RNs. Identified as rural were 169 LTC facilities while 168 LTC facilities were identified as urban. The response rate from the rural area was 54% and 46% from the urban area. Due to the low overall response rate (323 respondents), the findings can not be generalized to the entire population.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

For an RN whose basic nursing education was completed in a diploma program, an advancement in degree could be either an associate's degree or a bachelor's degree. Likewise, an RN whose basic nursing education was completed in an associate degree program, the advancement in degree would be a bachelor degree. The bachelor's degree may be in, but not limited to, nursing. The highest academic degree held by the LTC RN respondents can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

DEGREE ABOVE BASIC NURSING EDUCATION (N = 260)

	N	%
None	204	78.4
Associate Degree	16	6.2
Bachelors Degree	20	7.7
Masters Degree or more	20	7.7
Total	260	100.0
No response = 63		

In Table 1 it can be noted that 78.5% of the RN respondents have not furthered their academic education degree. In addition the study found that 87% of the LTC RN respondents were not pursuing a degree.

Nearly half (48.6%) of the LTC RNs completed their basic nursing education in diploma schools of nursing, while a third (35.3% of all the LTC RNs completed their basic nursing education in an associate degree program. Furthermore, only 16.1% completed their basic nursing education in a baccalaureate program (Sanders, 1993). The most typical LTC RN respondents were married

(80%) females (97%), who were diploma prepared (49%) with no degree above basic nursing education (79%) and who were not pursuing an academic degree (87%). The LTC RNs had a mean age of 46 years, while the mean age for completing of basic nursing education was 27 years old. The majority of the LTC RNs had never been a single parent (77%) and had one or more children at home (57%) at the time of the survey. Eighty percent were employed full-time in a facility of 99 beds or less (64%) as a charge nurse (30%) or director of nursing (37%). Sixty-five percent had been an RN 11 or more years, but had worked in LTC three years or less (54%). The majority of the LTC RNs obtained only the required mandatory continuing nursing contact hours (30-34 contact hours, 55%) for which their employer paid (60%). The selection of their CNE was based on the topic (94%) which was offered within 49 miles or less (57%).

The independent variables correlated with continuing education were: (a) basic nursing education, (b) advanced academic education, (c) level of practice (position), (c) age (present and completion of basic nursing education), (d) size of facility in which practice occurred, (e) location of practice (rural or urban), (f) length of employment (LTC and as an RN), (g) cost of continuing education (who paid for continuing education, distance to continuing education offering, and selection of continuing education offering based on cost or topic), (h) number of contact hours obtained, and (i) family status (marital status, single parent, and children presently at home). Even though the findings can not be generalized to the population due to the low response rate, they are of particular interest to providers of continuing nursing education for LTC RNs.

The study found there was a negative correlation of level of practice ($p=.05$), the position in which the LTC RN respondent functioned, and their attitude toward continuing nursing education. In other words, as their level of practice increased their attitude toward continuing education decreased. The level of practice (position) was negatively significant ($r=-0.081$, $p=.008$; $f=3.80$, $p=.024$). Further more the study found that basic nursing education and advanced academic education were not significant ($p=.05$)when correlated with continuing education.

The study further found the age of the LTC RN respondent had a significant positive correlation ($p=.05$) with their attitude toward continuing education ($r=0.125$, $p=0.34$, i.e., as the age increased so did their attitude toward continuing education. As expected the number of children presently at home also presented a significant negative correlation ($p=.046$) when correlated with continuing education, i.e. as the number of children residing at home increase the RN respondent's attitude decreased. Analysis of variance indicated no significance.

The factors identified in the "Adult Attitude Toward Continuing Education Scale (AACES)" by Hayes and Darkenwald (1990) were Enjoyment of Learning, Importance of Adult Education, and the Intrinsic Value of Adult Education. Table 2 presents the significant variables for each of the factors. The variables were analyzed by the Pearson Product Moment and by analysis of variance. Only those variables significant for the Pearson were included. The asterisk (*) indicates those that were also significant by analysis of variance.

THE WAY THIS CONCERN RELATES TO CONFERENCE THEME OF LINKING RESEARCH/ THEORY AND PRACTICE

Advanced academic education was significant for both Enjoyment of Learning Activities and Importance of Adult Education. The LTC RNs who continue their academic education had a better attitude toward continuing education. Therefore, adult educators in the field of nursing have the impetus to provide the stimulus for these LTC RNs to seek further academic education, especially since so many (78%) have not furthered their academic education.

Since the employers paid for 60% of the continuing nursing education, it would suggest that the continuing education be for an academic degree to improve the nurses attitude. It would be more cost effective. It also alludes to longer tenure with an improved attitude. Nursing adult educators must be aware that adult education (academic) is vital to the LTC industry as suggested by this study.

Table 2

SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES FOR THE FACTORS OF CONTINUING EDUCATION.

Variable	r	p	N
Enjoyment of Learning Activities			
Advanced Education	0.222	0.0004*	247
Position	0.128	0.025	305
Selection: Cost/Topic	0.132	0.021	306
Age @ Completion	0.118	0.039	306
LTC Practice, Time	-0.129	0.024	305
Contact Hours	0.180	0.002	306
Practice Location (Rural =1/Urban=2)	0.149	0.009*	306
Importance of Adult Education			
Advanced Education	0.129	0.043*	245
Selection: Cost/Topic	0.129	0.024*	306
Distance for CNE	0.120	0.036	305
LTC Practice, Time	-0.121	0.035	306
Contact Hours	0.154	0.007	306
Single Parent	0.148	0.009*	306
Intrinsic Value of Adult Education			
Position	-0.132	0.023	301
Who Pays: Employer/Self	0.125	0.030	302
Age @ Present	0.180	0.002	302
Contact Hours	0.167	0.004	302

p=.05; * significance by analysis of variance, also

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LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF MEGA- CHURCH PASTORS

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ABSTRACT

This nationwide study evaluates the leadership practices of 132 senior pastors with congregations of at least 2,000 in average weekend worship attendance. Leadership practices and congregational growth were analyzed as a function of selected demographic variables.

Between 1987 and 1991 congregations in the study grew an average of 36.2% compared with a population growth in the U.S. of 4.1%. Many grew despite adverse circumstances. During the same time period, a majority of churches in America were plateaued or declining in attendance.

Younger pastors and founding pastors experienced significantly faster attendance growth, and leadership scores increased progressively with age. When compared with their business counterparts, pastors reflected higher aggregate mean and standard deviation scores. Overall, pastors were found to be quite similar in their leadership practices and also compared favorably with business leaders.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership has become a widely studied subject. At the same time, it is an elusive concept. Over the past 75 years, thousands of investigations in the business arena have produced over 350 definitions of leadership with no common agreement about what distinguishes successful leaders from the others (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Yet, the literature overwhelmingly claims leadership to be the critical ingredient to successful organizations.

Leadership is also of particular importance to effective churches. In the U.S. there are currently 375,000 Protestant congregations representing $50 billion in annual revenues and an additional $75 billion contributed in volunteer work (Stewart, 1989). Yet, mainline churches are losing millions of adherents. Four of the largest denominations have declined over 25% during the past two decades (Stewart, 1989). Nationwide, 85% of congregations are plateaued or declining.

While spirituality is rising nationally, church attendance is declining with most people perceiving little connection between the two. A majority of Americans perceive churches to be irrelevant. While they mean well, most churches offer little to the contemporary person who struggles with the tasks of living in modern society. Church traditions are frozen into cultural forms which are either unintelligible or boring to the masses.

While many congregations face steep numerical declines, there is a new phenomenon emerging -- an increasing number of mega-churches. In 1989, Fortune reported that there were only 100 American churches in 1984 averaging more than 2,000 worshipers on Sunday. It goes on to state: "That number has doubled, and some 10,000 churches have an average attendance of 1,000 or more" (Hottest Product, 1989, p. 128). In 1991, just two years later, John Vaughan, director of the Mega-Church International Research Center, reported that the number of mega-churches had increased another 50% (Grossman, 1991).

Compared with small congregations, mega-churches are drawing an increasing percentage of people who choose to attend church. Observers describe the character of these congregations as people who are excited in their attitudes and involved as an act of passion. Programming is contemporary and relevant to the dynamic issues of society. There is a clear sense of vision with positive expectations for the future. Opportunities abound for both intimacy and involvement.

Both business and church research hold that leadership is the prime difference between growing and declining organizations. Leaders establish the vision and most visibly embody the values at the heart of their organizations. They are the key influential factors in determining future direction.

If leaders are key to organizational success, how does one determine what makes them effective? A number of authors suggest that the best way to evaluate effectiveness is by focusing on the leader's behavior. Kouzes and Posner (1987) conducted extensive research to determine the practices of effective leaders. They suggest that the best way to study leadership is to move away from the focus on psychological characteristics and observe 'what leaders do when they lead, to "examine and identify key behaviors of leaders, how these behaviors manifest themselves, and how these practices can be nurtured and developed in people" (p. 214). Drucker (1990) also holds, "There are simply no such things as 'leadership traits' or 'leadership characteristics'" (p. 18). He further states: "Leadership doing. It isn't just thinking great thoughts; it isn't just charisma; it isn't play-acting. It is doing" (p. 47). Levinson and Rosenthal (1984) challenge leadership studies to move beyond theories and abstractions to examine "what the leader does, day by day, to build followers and knit them into an organization" (p. 5).

This research investigates the leadership practices of mega-church pastors by examining the behaviors which contribute most directly to their effectiveness. Using a business inventory, leadership practices are analyzed as a function of numerical growth and demographic variables. Pastors are also compared with their business counterparts.

PROCEDURES

The population included all Protestant churches within the continental U.S. with an average of 2,000 or more in attendance at weekend worship services. This criteria has become the accepted marker for defining a mega-church (Anderson, 1992), and attendance is considered the best indicator of church vitality (Barna, 1991). Membership figures are often meaningless statistics. Many who attend never become members, and others never attend but maintain membership status.

Since there is no accessible listing of mega-churches, several sources provided an initial data base of 331 congregations (e.g. Vaughan, 1991). Each church was contacted to confirm attendance; this screening reduced the final population to 213 congregations.

Each pastor was sent a demographic survey and a copy of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI- SELF) which rates five leadership practices: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes and Posner, 1988). There were a total of 152 returns of which 132 (62%) qualified for the study. Several analyses were performed to assess growth and leadership practices as a function of demographic variables.

One-hundred of the qualifying pastors were also contacted for interviews; 53 interviews with pastors from 11 states were conducted using a standardized interview format. Questions specifically addressed leadership behaviors which make pastors effective.

DATA

The average tenure of pastors in the study was 15 years, and the mean age was just over 50. Two out of five pastors were founders of their churches, and two-thirds set written goals for congregational growth. Churches were affiliated with 22 denominations of which 30% were Southern Baptist and 30% had no denominational attachment. Churches represented 28 states with two states, California and Texas, accounting for nearly 39% of the total.

The average age of the people in attendance was 38. The racial composition was predominantly white (78%) with an additional 14% black and another 5% of mixed ethnicity. Weekend attendance ranged from 2,000 to 10,000 with an average congregation of more than 3,500. On an typical Sunday in 1991, these 132 congregations had a combined attendance of more than 471,000. Rate of growth between 1987 and 1991 ranged from 30.7% to 340% with an average growth rate of 36.2%.

Demographics of the 53 interviewed pastors were similar to the population. For example, 31 were from California and Texas, and 29 were either Southern Baptist or without denominational affiliation. Attendance ranged from 2,000 to 8,000, and church growth ranged from 14.7% to 300% with an average growth rate of 40.6%.

FINDINGS

Congregational growth was analyzed as a function of eleven demographic variables using the t-test, analysis of variance, and the Pearson correlation depending on the nature of the question being addressed. Demographics were divided into three major categories: pastor (age, tenure, founding status, and growth goals), institution (age, denominational affiliation, and region of the U.S.), and congregation (1991 average attendance, growth between 1987 and 1991, average age, and race). The Kruskal-Wallis Test was chosen to assess leadership practices as a function of these demographics.

Younger pastors and founding pastors had significantly faster congregational growth; however, younger pastors and those with less tenure scored lower in their leadership practices. Pastors setting growth goals scored higher than those without goals.

Several significant findings resulted from analyzing leadership practices as a function of institutional demographics. Pastors from the various denominations reflected important differences as compared with the others. Overall, the most noticeable distinction was that Southern Baptist and non-affiliated pastors scored lowest in their leadership practices.

Leadership practice scores were also contrasted with corresponding data from the business literature (Posner & Kouzes, 1992). Raw data were not available from tests with business executives for determining whether these differences were statistically significant. Mean scores of pastors were higher than those of business leaders. Further, pastors reflected higher overall standard deviation scores and greater mean score variance.

Interviews provided further assessments of mega-church leadership. Senior pastors described the practices by which they demonstrate their personal and corporate values, the manner by which they take charge of organizational requirements, and the methods by which they demonstrate spiritual leadership. As a group, pastors were positive, intentional, and proactive in leading their congregations.

LEADERSHIP VALUES

Several important values were recurring themes. There was consistency between personal values and those which pastors intentionally sought to enhance in their staff and congregation. They not only state these values openly but model behaviors which demonstrate their beliefs. The three highest values were integrity of behavior, belief in the worth and potential of people, and humility of spirit.

First, pastors consistently stressed of the value of integrity. They were emphatic in their commitment to be of unquestioned character not only in morality but also in finances, authority, and power. They ensured firm accountability relationships with their governing boards, and many enlisted a small group of trusted friends to scrutinize their actions and to personally hold them in check.

Pastors also value the worth and potential of their people. Through words and actions, they demonstrate that everyone is not only important in the eyes of God, but also of high value to them and the corporate body. Contrary to mega-church criticism, their primary goal was, as one pastor said, to "build a great people," not to build a congregation to mega-church proportions. While they understand their position of influence, they safeguard themselves from the temptation of becoming infatuated by ego and power.

Another important value is humility of spirit. While these pastors are strong leaders, they are also humble in character. They demonstrate this value by their personal authenticity, vulnerability, and transparency. This practice complemented integrity, reinforced the value of people, and lessened the tendencies of people to place them on a pedestal. They willingly admit error and are open about personal pain. By modeling this relational dimension, they also promote trust and an atmosphere which promotes intimacy within the larger congregation.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Although pastors demonstrate a breadth of organizational leadership, three areas stand out: mission and vision, leader selection and development, and goal-directed strategies. First, pastors clearly articulate the mission of their churches-- the corporate character which describes the essential reason for existence and taps the inner passions of the larger constituency. They also cast an attractive vision for the future which uplifts the aspirations of their people and unleashes their potential. They serve as primary communicators of vision through their messages and contacts with key staff and lay leaders.

Pastors are also intentional in selecting and developing key leaders. Many invest up to three years in mentoring lay people with leadership potential before placing them into key positions. Pastors also play a key role in the hiring process to ensure high character in staffing. They make certain that staff are team players who are well suited to their intended responsibilities. Pastors then assume a primary role in leading the lay and professional leadership team.

From a sound leadership base, pastors work cooperatively to develop strategies for accomplishing the vision. As a team, they establish measurable goals to serve as benchmarks for monitoring progress, then evaluate the degree of accomplishment and determine need for mid-course corrections.

SPIRITUAL LEADERSHIP

Pastors demonstrate spiritual leadership most directly in leading worship events. This is their primary means for personal touch with their congregation. They structure services to be relevant, enjoyable, and meaningful to personal life issues. Music is upbeat and celebrative, and sermons focus on the felt needs of people. While they make certain that messages are thoroughly biblical, they are also practical in application and authentic in delivery.

Community outreach is also an intentional focus based upon the strategic vision and needs of their immediate locale. Some pastors establish partnerships with social organizations, others regularly form new daughter congregations, and still others advocate for the needy and oppressed. Pastors become the visible champions of these endeavors, serving as the primary catalyst. Their actions promote an identity with both the cause and the corporate body.

In an oversight capacity, pastors also promote opportunities for personal intimacy and involvement. They give leadership to a smorgasbord of small group gatherings where people can develop meaningful and intimate relationships. These include ongoing home fellowship/care groups, varieties of support groups, and ministry/service groups. They also herald ongoing challenges for people to become personally and proactively involved within the congregation and for sharing their faith through responsible involvement in the secular arena. Pastors frequently spoke about liberating and empowering the laity to assume ownership and to perceive themselves as the real ministers of the church.

CONCLUSIONS

Two conclusions are worthy of note. First, the challenges of mega-church pastors may be significantly greater than those of business leaders. Their leadership team is predominantly volunteers who have demanding occupations beyond their church involvement. Also, their "stockholders" expect much more involvement in running the corporation than in business. Further, pastors are much more visible in their leadership, presenting at least one major address to

their constituency each week. Finally, pastors must appeal for funding where there is no predictable return and often no tangible product.

Another conclusion is that the variables promoting attendance growth are difficult phenomena to understand. While these churches grew an average of nine times faster than the U.S. population, most did so under the most adverse circumstances. Many were understaffed, made frequent moves from one rented facility to another, had inadequate parking space, were overcrowded, and the like. Many grew most profoundly when adverse circumstances were greatest. The above lends support to the important role of senior pastors who proactively and intentionally excelled in leadership.

APPLICATIONS

Understanding effective leadership practices has important applications for selecting leaders. The demonstrated ability to cast a shared vision, to develop meaningful strategies, to mobilize a leadership team, and the like are important criteria to investigate in the selection process. Further, governing boards who understand effective leadership practices will not only be able to diagnose leadership weaknesses but will also be available to provide complementary support drawn from the pool of skills available among board members.

Continuing education is also an important application. Many effective pastors were unable to immediately identify the practices which most significantly contribute to their success. They easily stated their beliefs about leadership but most often needed significant prompting to articulate what they actually *do* in leading. Additional training would help effective pastors increase their behavioral skills and identify areas for further growth.

Another application is for pastors who are effective leaders to mentor other pastors in order to replicate the benefits in a broader section of the community. Currently there is little cooperation among congregations, even those which are denominationally or racially similar.

As the 21st century approaches, the culture is changing at an ever- increasing pace. Old forms, traditions, and methods in both business and church organizations are no longer appropriate to meet the contemporary challenges. Organizations that thrive will be those that effectively adapt to the fluid changes in the environment. Logan (1989) states: "The successful church of the twenty-first century and beyond will be one that learns how to listen to people, establishes a culturally relevant philosophy of ministry, and adapts its ministry strategies to ever-changing needs." (p. 74). History will write the narrative reflecting the degree to which church leaders accept the challenge.

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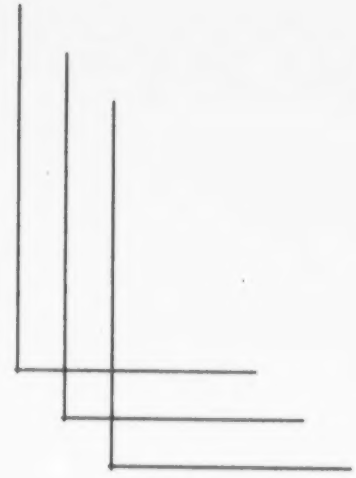

Gender, Culture & Diversity

GENDER, CULTURE AND DIVERSITY

Multicultural, multivocal, violent and compassionate, America is a nation of contrasts continually in search of itself, a nation of democratic ideas, a nation in process. During the Civil Rights struggle of the 1960's, when Americans, men and women of many differing racial and ethnic groups, economic and social classes came together to move the nation forward, they shouted, "It's nation time!" Unfortunately, it is not yet "nation time." One aim of adult education, a social enterprise, dynamically shaping and being shaped by the society in which it exits, is to move America towards "nation time." Adult educators and researchers, in this unsettled social-historical period in America, in a cultural climate where race gender and class, as interlocking systems of experience, are understood as being a part of our American heritage, are showing themselves to be up to the task as they formulate their research problems to take advantage of new interdisciplinary understanding of issues related to gender. culture, and diversity.

"Facilitating Professional Ethical Development: Beyond Kohlberg, Gilligan, Perry & Fowler" by Timothy J. Ellis & James H. McElhinney presents a nonlinear approach to adult development that is, as they say, "fluid, variable, unique, and dynamic." Ellis & McElhinney, in presenting their research, reveal that adult development, and our understanding of it, is not something that is settled once and for all. Although universalizing research, in my opinion, should be attended to with caution, this new P.E.D. model of adult development seems to be more inclusive than most life stage adult development models and have new explanatory powers that will include minority women, white women and men.

Laura L. Bierema in, "Executive Women in Business in the United States: A Study of Their Learning Strategies in Corporate Cultures," describe these women as developing in a nonlinear fashion and being critically reflective. These features are reflected in the P.E.D. model of adult development presented by Ellis and McElhinney and reflect concerns addressed in recent feminist scholarship. Issues related to gender have been shown to be of central importance in our society as women increasingly become a part of the decision making process in work organizations. One caution should be noted though, Bierema's paper does not identify what women are being talked about, and the best of feminist scholarship reminds one there are no uniracial, universal women, an issue that is made clear in the paper by Linda Lee Sattem.

In "Adult Education and Feminist Phase Theory: Practicing What We Teach," Linda Lee Sattem shows how feminist scholarship is interrogating differences in women lives and how they are impacted by their race, class, sexual orientation and lifestyles. Sattem asserts that in phase five there is a reaffirmation "that experiences are the same and different across gender." Sattem's paper provides a wake-up call to adult educators and, using phase theory to analyze issues relating to gender, she shows where adult education can begin in linking research to practice.

In Barbara G. Ludwig's study, "Internationalizing Extension Curriculum: A Study of the Attitudes of Ohio Agricultural and Metropolitan Leaders," it would seem that the agenda of the National and State Extension Leaders and the Metropolitan Leaders are different from that of the County Agriculture Leaders and their clientele. While Mrs. Ludwig does not tell about the background of the County Agriculture Leaders who responded to her survey, what responsibilities they have or what they believe their mission to be relative to their clientele, she does make clear that internationalism and agriculture is an issue of increasing importance in our "global village." This research takes the practice of adult education forward as it brings to the attention of adult educators that, if they are to assist County Agriculture Leaders understand and take a proactive approach in educating their clientele about issues of internationalism in agriculture, they will need to include issues about internationalism in their adult education programs.

Joanne Bankston and Jamie M. Cano researching, "Factors Related to Recruitment and Retention of Ethnic Minority Youth in the Ohio 4-H Program" confront the issue of how to recruit and retain youth who are not members of the dominant white culture in a program that is perceived to be for whites only. As in Mrs. Ludwig's research on internationalism, this research by Bankston and Cano confronts the issue of diversity, developing relationships with those who are not white and American. This research shows that the recruitment and retention of minority youth is

positively correlated with the number and services of ethnic minority professional staff and volunteers. The practice of adult education, informed by the findings in this study, can facilitate the training of County Extension professionals in the use of communications and marketing tools that have been successful in the recruitment and retention of ethnic minority youth while continuing to interrogate the research base of adult education to find new tools that will be highly successful in the recruitment and retention of ethnic minority County Extension professionals to assist in serving ethnic minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program.

Without a world, whatever differences we might have relative to issues of gender, culture and diversity would become non-issues. Margaret E. Holt and Maria Cseh, in their study, "Intergenerational Equity and Its Meaning to Adult Education," emphatically make this point. Linking research on intergenerational equity to lifelong learning and the enterprise of adult education they explain why the practice of adult education should be informative about issues of intergenerational responsibilities in its programs for older adults, young adults and adults in their middle years. How much responsibility we each have towards our own, succeeding and preceding generations and the implications this has for the practice of adult education are issues raised in this study. Holt and Cseh, in their study, call upon those in the field of adult education to prioritize educational programs and research that aides adults of all ages to understanding the necessity for, and the meaning of, intergenerational equity. Without a doubt, intergenerational equity affects all of us regardless of our gender, culture and diversity.

Informed by feminist scholarship and a growing number of studies from other disciplines, Americans are changing the way they see themselves, their neighbors, their country and the world. The research, by adult educators, is about women and men, inclusion not exclusion, and about living in America. The practice of adult education is linked to and informed by new research on adult ethical development, intergenerational equity, internationalism in agriculture, recruitment and retention of minorities within 4-H programs, the needs of women in the executive structure of the work place and issues related to gender. Adult education that incorporates this research into its programs, takes gender seriously, is socially responsible and is celebrative of diversity. Adult educators as facilitators, agents of empowerment and change, linking research on gender, culture and diversity to their practice of adult education, moves America a little closer to "nation time."

Barbara J. Covington
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FACTORS RELATED TO RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF ETHNIC MINORITY YOUTH IN THE OHIO 4-H PROGRAM

Joanne Bankstone
Jamie M. Cano

ABSTRACT

Thirty-one counties in Ohio with a minority population of 3 percent and greater were studied to determine the communications and marketing strategies used to recruit and retain ethnic minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program. The study identified successful strategies and determined the extent to which specific recruitment and retention strategies had been utilized for involving minority youth. Agents' perception of their degree of success in recruiting and retaining minority youth was also described. Finally, the study explored the racial composition of Ohio 4-H professionals and the enrollment of minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program.

Presentation to school classrooms or assemblies where minorities were in attendance was the marketing tool most frequently used by county Extension professionals to recruit minority youth. Use of school programs had been used "often." None of the recruitment activities had been found to be "extremely or very successful.

Making minority youth and leaders feel welcome at events and recognition of achievement were the two most frequently used retention strategies. None of the retention strategies were found to be either "extremely or very successful", however several were "moderately successful

The largest percentage of county Extension professionals felt that they had not been very successful in involving minority youth in the 4-H program. Counties with a larger number of minority employees tended to have a larger number of minority youth and volunteers enrolled in the program.

INTRODUCTION

Ethnic diversity is growing in America. By the 21st century, one-quarter to one-third of all Americans will belong to racial or ethnic minorities (Allen & Turner, 1990). 4-H, as one of the largest, informal youth education efforts in the United States will be challenged to serve an increasingly diverse population of cultural, racial, and ethnic backgrounds represented among families, communities and states. Data for the Ohio 4-H program indicated that minority youth in Ohio were being served by 4-H; however, evidence existed that Ohio 4-H involved minority youth disproportionately throughout the state, and at a lower percentage than youth being served nationally (1991 Ohio 4-H Statistical Results). Indeed, a problem existed in identifying effective efforts and strategies utilized to make 4-H programs accessible to all populations.

The existing problem and strategies utilized to solve the problem have significant implications for adult and community education programs. Firstly, adults are employed as professionals in the 4-H program to advance the informal youth educational program. 4-H professionals also train adult volunteer leaders to work with youth in the program. And certainly, findings related to marketing and communications tools utilized to reach minority youth may be readily transferred and adapted for use with minority adults.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Many factors impact youth participation in programs. Warner (1965) found that personal factors; social and environmental factors; and, organizational factors affect youth participation in voluntary groups. The changing characteristics of youth also offer implications for programming. Growth in the youth population, changes in racial diversity, family structure and living arrangements, urbanization, children in poverty, and the increasing number of working mothers will impact programming in voluntary youth organizations (Cook, 1988).

Public awareness and the image of an organization is closely related to an organization's utilization. Warner and Christensen (1984) found that Blacks and other minority groups, low income persons, and urban residents reported substantially less knowledge of 4-H than other population groups. Cano and Bankston (1990) reported that minority youth and parents had limited knowledge of 4-H until personal contact was made. Minority youth and parents also perceived 4-H as an organization for rural white youth with farm animals (Cano & Bankston, 1991).

Marketing of the 4-H program is important to participation. Diem (1987) found that key marketing activities such as long term planning, identifying and targeting audiences, and consideration of the needs and interests of potential audiences were generally not used in promoting 4-H. The importance of the inclusion of positive minority media images in both print and broadcast media (including publications) is essential to the marketing of programs (Wilson Gutierrez (1985).

Parental support, interest in activities, and recognition of achievement were important in retaining youth in 4-H programs (Hartley, 1982). Minority youth often drop out of 4-H because, they get jobs, project materials become too costly, and they loose interest (Cano & Bankston (1991).

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Thirty-one of Ohio's 88 counties with a minority population of 3 percent and greater were studied. All objectives relate to the 31 counties. The objectives of this descriptive survey study were:

1. To determine the communications and marketing strategies utilized by county Extension personnel to recruit ethnic minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program, and to describe the degree of success experienced with recruitment activities.

2. To describe the types of strategies utilized by county Extension personnel to retain ethnic minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program and to describe the degree of success experienced with retention strategies.

3. To identify county personnel's perceptions of their success in recruitment and retention of ethnic minority youth in the Ohio 4-H program.

4. To determine the relationship between the number of minority county Extension professionals and the enrollment of minority youth in Ohio 4-H.

5. To determine the relationship between the number of ethnic minority volunteers and minority enrollment in Ohio 4-H.

METHODS

The population for this study consisted of 31 of Ohio's 88 counties that have a minority population of 3 percent or greater as defined by Statistical Abstracts (1988). A census of the 31 counties was conducted, therefore sampling error was not a concern. The county Extension professional who had the greatest percentage of their time dedicated to working with minority youth was surveyed. An accurate frame was secured from the Ohio Cooperative Extension Service state office.

The descriptive survey utilized an instrument that had a Likert-type scale and open-ended questions. Eighteen recruitment and 14 retention strategies specifically designed for minority youth were identified through a review of literature. The Likert-type scale measured the level of frequency and degree of success for recruitment and retention activities. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze data.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Presentation to school classrooms or assemblies where minorities were in attendance was the marketing and communications strategy most frequently used by county Extension professionals to recruit minority youth. Use of school programs received the highest mean score (3.52) and was interpreted as being used "often." Placing promotional brochures or flyers in minority communities (mean = 2.81), and enlisting minority community leaders to serve on boards (mean = 2.52) had been used "some." Involving minority 4-H leaders to recruit minority youth (mean = 2.91) was the activity experiencing the largest degree of success and found to be "moderately successful." None of the activities had been found on the average, to be successful or extremely successful in recruiting minority youth. The two most frequently used retention strategies were: made minority youth and leaders feel welcome at events (mean = 3.74) and recognized achievement (mean = 3.68). Other activities frequently used were: held meetings at convenient locations and times; used a variety of activities; and, recognized minority leaders for time and service. The two most successful retention strategies (found to be moderately successful) were: recognized minority volunteer leaders for time and service (mean = 3.36) and recognized achievement (mean = 3.28).

The largest percentage of county Extension professionals (58.1 percent) indicated that they had not been very successful in involving minority youth. Findings indicated that the most important reason why minority youth remained in the 4-H program was because their friends were involved. Youth also remained in the program, because a leader or parent encouraged them to stay involved. Factors mentioned that might enhance recruitment and retention were: an increased number of volunteers, expansion of program and field staff, more culturally sensitive media support and materials, more professionally produced marketing materials, and increased financial support.

A correlation coefficient of .92 suggested that there is a strong tendency for counties with a larger number of minority employees to have a larger number of minority youth enrolled in the 4-H program. A very strong positive association (r=.92) was also found between the number of minority volunteers and the number of minority youth enrolled.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations suggested that recruitment of minority youth will require targeted marketing efforts directed toward the needs of minority youth by Ohio Cooperative Extension. Since minority Extension professionals have been successful in involving more minority youth, hiring of more minorities may increase enrollment. It was also recommended that Ohio Cooperative Extension recruit more minority volunteers, advertise and publicize 4-H through minority media, and train existing staff on techniques for marketing 4-H to minorities.

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EXECUTIVE WOMEN IN BUSINESS IN THE UNITED STATES: A STUDY OF THEIR LEARNING STRATEGIES IN CORPORATE CULTURES

Laura L. Bierema

ABSTRACT

The demographics of the workforce are changing and the presence of women is increasing along with their ascension into executive ranks. Despite this, little is understood about women's learning processes in organizations. This study explores how executive women learn the corporate culture and proposes steps that organizations and women can take to maximize their likelihood of success in the organization.

BACKGROUND

Women account for nearly half of the workforce and their numbers are increasing. Some women have achieved positions of power and responsibility in organizations, a trend that is expected to continue, based on demographics (Hudson Institute, 1987, Gonzales, 1988; Noe, 1988; Bloom, 1986). It is in the organization's best interest, therefore, to attract, develop, and retain women. Morrison (1992) notes that negligence in developing women for top management jobs cuts the talent pool significantly. Companies failing to promote diversity will find it difficult to compete for both employees and markets. Despite this reality, women's experience in organizational culture can be a toilsome struggle to advance. Executive women contend with the "glass ceiling" syndrome in which they reach a certain organizational level, and then as if there were an invisible glass barrier above them, progress no higher in the corporation, while the men bypass them (Morrison, White, Van Velsor, & Center for Creative Leadership, 1992).

The purpose of this study is to understand how executive women learn within the context of white male dominated organizational culture. Questions guiding this study include: What formal and informal learning do women experience to develop their understanding of organizational culture? What barriers do women encounter in their climb up the corporate ladder? What are executive women's strategies for coping and excelling in corporate environments?

IMPORTANCE OF STUDY

This study is important in that it will have theoretical and practical applications for adult learning, organizational anthropology, organizational development, and human resources development. The study takes a holistic approach to understanding women's experience in corporate culture, based on viewing the organizational culture from an anthropological perspective, with the assertion that businesses are patriarchal organizations and that women's presence in them causes conflict.

METHODOLOGY

The anthropological perspective values comprehending the social context in its natural form, by adopting a native or emic perspective of the phenomenon under investigation (Bhagat & McQuaid, 1982). The anthropological approach is a qualitative process of describing and evaluating sociocultural phenomenon within the whole social system, rather than just fragments of it, with the goal of gaining a holistic perspective. Anthropology focuses on the social arrangements of persons and cultural systems of meaningful symbols, values, and attitudes integrating individuals as they participate in the industrial production process (Holzberg & Giovannini, 1981).

This study is qualitative as it seeks to gain understanding and insight into executive women's experience. Qualitative research is appropriate for this study because I have no preconceived hypotheses about women's experience in corporate culture; rather, I want to explore and understand executive women's encounters in corporate America. Patton (1990) observes that "the essence of qualitative inquiry is paying attention, being open to what the world has to show us, and thinking about what it means" (p. 140).

Qualitative investigation concentrates intensely on small samples selected purposefully (Patton, 1990). "The logic and power of purposeful sampling" according to Patton (1990), "lies in selecting *information-rich cases* for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the term *purposeful* sampling" (p. 169). I used *snowball or chain sampling*, whereby I asked subjects and acquaintances to recommend informants for the study in conjunction with *criterion sampling* which requires subjects to have met certain criteria.

Eleven executive women in *Fortune 500* corporations were interviewed for this study. The women worked in their respective cultures for a minimum of five years and were at an executive level as defined by the specific organization. Data were collected using the ethnographic techniques of interviewing and observation which are used extensively in anthropological and qualitative research. The interviews were transcribed verbatim. Data analysis entailed a constant comparative method.

PRELIMINARY RESULTS

This study is a dissertation that will be completed in December 1993. Preliminary findings show four aspects of women's learning about organizational culture. The first element is developing self confidence. The next component is the process of negotiating the culture. The third factor is women's maximization of formal and informal learning opportunities. The fourth strategy is women's cultural learning through reliance on mentors and networks.

DEVELOPING SELF CONFIDENCE

All women in the study discuss the pursuit and achievement of self confidence. While some are more self-assured than others, each recognizes the value and importance of being confident. Although the women identify the significance of self confidence, there are many obstacles that block or reverse the development of it.

Obstacles to strong confidence include what one woman terms "grateful woman's syndrome," the notion that if a woman does good work and is nice, she will succeed in the culture. As described by one participant, "for quite a few years...I was of the uh opinion that if you did good work, someone would tap you on the shoulder and you would move into the next arena of good jobs." Another obstacle is poor career planning. Some women report that they could have advanced farther and faster had they planned their careers. Failure to engage in career planning is attributed to the women not expecting to advance quickly or far in the organization and the organization's failure to consciously develop women.

Conflict between family and work responsibilities is often cited as an obstacle to feeling confident and guilt-free about having a career. One woman, who raised a daughter while working full time recognizes that "when you're climbing the ladder and developing a career it's not a nine-to-five job. There are a lot of demands on your time." Another emphasizes that there are costs when raising a family and sometimes it negatively affects family life.

The women, however, devise ways of mitigating the obstacles to their self confidence. Longevity and position level enhanced their confidence. They are less uncomfortable at being themselves and tending to personal and familial needs. Education and experience help strengthen women's self confidence as well. A senior vice president, trained as a teacher and lawyer feels that her law degree enhances her confidence as well as that of others in her. She says, "I always worked hard, and I've always had some sort of basic trust in myself...When I came to [the company] I felt that my blend of education and experience enhanced my confidence." Another corporate vice president values the common sense she developed through her experience. She observes, "well you just got to be smart and not all of it is book sense. You've got to have common sense, you've got to have people sense and you've got to know what it is that you are doing."

Throughout the process of developing confidence, the women experience varying levels of critical reflection including key events that shape their self concepts. Critical reflection is a process in which a person assesses his or her beliefs or actions and makes a decision about whether or not to change them, and then acts accordingly. Critical reflection or thinking is usually linked to a significant event such as being fired, experiencing conflict, failing at an assignment, or questioning actions. All women experience such critical reflecting events which causes them to change their perspectives.

NEGOTIATING THE CULTURE

Executive women are immersed in a culture they did not design; they are participants in a culture that has been established, controlled, and perpetuated by white males. The organizational culture is filled with barriers to women's entry and acceptance. All cultures have rites of passage, however, and these women have learned to craftily maneuver in their respective cultures. The women hold specific definitions of organizational culture, and they see connections between the culture and its impact on career development.

Each woman when asked "what does the concept of corporate culture mean to you?" immediately understood the question and then offered her definition of culture. One executive shares that "corporate culture is a basic philosophy of visions of the corporation." Another executive notes that hers is a very technical culture of hard work and long hours, both of which were required in order to advance in the company. She also observed, "every company that is probably five or six years old has a corporate culture." Another participant believes,

> Corporate culture for me is the way things are. The way that we do business and how I as an individual fit in to some kind of an environment. Now when I think about some descriptors of corporate culture I think about very traditional roles that men and women play. I think about a culture that focuses uhm on bottom line results as being the ultimate...you know, the singular thing. Uhm I think about it uh in terms of being primarily a culture that is uhm (pauses) dominated by white male thinking.

Many cultural barriers were identified throughout the interviews. The good old boys' network is recognized as a notable aspect of the culture. When asked about whether or not the good old boys network exists in their organizations, participants replies were similar to this woman's: "Whoa! We've got a lot of them!" Another participant notes that "women seem to acknowledge the good old boys' network as a very formal network, but sometimes men aren't even conscious about it." Although most of the women acknowledge the existence of the good old boys' network, not all of them negotiate it similarly. Some deny its existence or impact on their careers. Others simply accept it and work behind the scenes to quietly overcome it. Finally, there were those women who regularly and overtly challenge it.

The women are keenly aware of organizational culture, and its impact on career development. The renown phenomenon of the glass ceiling is not unfamiliar to these women. One participant observes that "there is a glass ceiling here just like there is everywhere else and I don't see it being lifted...This company is more likely to hire a senior woman from outside than they are to from within. Why that is God knows." A director in the automotive industry also has strong feelings about the glass ceiling. She observes:

"There is a glass ceiling but I think our strategy is to break it not bump your head and get frustrated...I think the idea is to find a hammer somewhere and the hammer called excellence because I find that when we achieve excellence they can't turn us down."

MAXIMIZING FORMAL AND INFORMAL LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES

Another way executive women learn corporate culture is by maximizing formal and informal learning opportunities. Each woman interviewed has a strong learning orientation and harbors a bias that you must constantly learn or else fail. A multitude of learning strategies is applied by the women, ranging from formal classroom instruction to informal observation. The women also focus on the facilitation of other individuals' learning.

The women attend an assortment of formal training programs, such as leadership development, company philosophy, total quality, sales, diversity, and human resources planning, to name a few. Although all women recognize and participate in formal types of learning, they report informal learning experiences more often, and place higher value on them.

Women report learning informally in a myriad of ways. When asked about her informal learning experience, a corporate human resources director declared, "I'm probably going to tell you how I learn the real culture." A plant manager states, "I think I've gotten, I've learned the culture by actually living it, being a part of it you know, and assimilating it." The varied strategies employed by the women to learn culture fall into five general categories: sensory, relationships, challenges on the job, intellectual pursuits, and reflection. Although for preliminary analysis I have separated these aspects of women's informal learning in organizational culture, it is critical to note that these learning processes do not occur in isolation of one another. On the contrary, it's a process of some or all of these aspects interacting to create a learning episode.

Sensory learning pertains to any learning that is accomplished through the senses such as sight, sound, or touch. Many of the women report learning by observing and listening. One woman keeps hand held models and pictures of her vision for the company as a reminder to herself of the goals and a means of educating others about them. Another maintains a dry erase board in her office and draws visual models of goals for the company.

Relationships with other people whether they are bosses, peers, subordinates, or external contacts are valued as very useful informal learning mediums for women in corporate cultures. They rely on relationships for feedback, candid discussion about the culture, and support. The women experience continuous challenge as they maneuver through the culture. Many recall mistakes they made and the lessons they learned from them. They also cite difficult situations and risk taking as highly educational. One participant was expatriated to the Netherlands for three years and views the experience as the most pivotal learning opportunity she ever had. Finally they learn through intellectual pursuits such as reading, developing expertise in their fields, attending church, maintaining linkages with universities, and joining organizations. Women critically reflect on their actions and choices in all aspects of their cultural learning.

The women are not only focused on maximizing their own learning experiences but also on facilitating those of others. The women are involved in employee education from guiding career development, to developing curriculum for employee training. Over half of the women deliver training to employees in their organizations. Some teach outside the workplace for universities or professional organizations.

MENTORS AND NETWORKS

The fourth and final aspect of how executive women learn corporate culture is through networks and mentors. Networks are regarded as highly valuable for learning the culture. They are composed of representatives from particular interest groups in the business. Common networks may be product or issue oriented. Many businesses today support female and minority networks. These groups can pool resources, establish common causes and solutions for problems, and act as a resource for the population they represent. Networks don't necessarily have to be internal business groups. Many communities sponsor networks on a variety of issues.

Mentoring is also highly valued by the women. One woman feels that all women should have a minimum of three mentors. The women strongly believe that women must take action in securing mentors rather than waiting for their companies to begin formal mentoring programs. The women actively seek to cultivate mentioning relationships within their organizations. Most report a boss as a mentor and other individuals above them in the organization. One engages in what she calls "peer mentoring" where she and her colleagues actively mentor each other's careers.

DISCUSSION

This study is important for researchers, students, and practitioners in the quest to develop qualified workforces from a shrinking labor pool. Often, less emphasis is placed on developing female talent, favoring instead, the identification of existing male talent, both internal and external to the organization. To compete in a globalizing environment with a shrinking workforce, however, companies are compelled to develop diverse human resources.

Women's learning needs are not met by current human resources development processes. Hoy (1989) observes that a common goal in adult education is to provide training for the growing population of women in business. Yet, because organizations have been dominated by males, the learning is structured to meet their needs.

Responsible companies will address the needs of all employees by assessing formal and informal learning opportunities available to both men and women. Next, responsible companies will create learning opportunities and environments conducive to men's and women's development. Based on the preliminary results of this study, organizations will effectively attract and retain women by focusing on fostering women's self confidence, helping them negotiate the culture, maximizing formal and informal learning opportunities, and facilitating mentoring and networking programs.

Through better understanding women's learning needs and experiences in organizational culture, corporations can create improved organizational systems, capitalize on diversity, and maximize human resources development. This response to the growing diversity of the workforce will be valuable to aspiring women, their organizations on both local and corporate levels, and to US. business in general, since expanding the diversity of and learning opportunities for the workforce will in turn make our economy more competitive.

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FACILITATING PROFESSIONAL ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT: BEYOND KOHLBERG, GILLIGAN, PERRY, & FOWLER

Timothy J. Ellis, & James H. McElhinney

ABSTRACT

Recent changes in presuppositions regarding adult development across the lifespan, imply the need to examine current approaches to teaching ethics in the professions. This paper explores implications of insights from sociology and cross-cultural research for expanding current approaches for teaching professional ethics, many of which are based currently upon psychological accounts of adult development. The paper first reviews changes in current understandings of adult development. Then a teaching-learning framework is presented which incorporates these new understandings. Framework components, specific teaching strategies, and implications of the framework for practice and research are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade developmental research regarding moral, ethical and intellectual development of adults across the life span has gained important and ongoing examination in professional journals of a number of professions including medicine (Ewan, 1986), business (Furman, 1990; Harris & Brown, 1990; Ward, 1992), law (Richards, 1981; Speigelman, 1988), teacher education (Noddings, 1988; Rogers & Webb, 1991; Schrader, 1993), nursing (Taylor, 1985; Cooper, 1989; 1990; Disparti, 1991), physical therapy (Decker, 1989), and journalism (Elliott, 1991). Developmental stage theories by Kohlberg, Gilligan, Perry, and Fowler, in particular, have been examined as bases for facilitating ethical development of professionals both in pre-professional and continuing professional education.

While approaches for teaching ethics based upon developmental stage theories of adult development are supported by psychological research, recent interaction among psychological, sociological, and cross-cultural accounts of adult development have raised critical questions about presuppositions upon which prominent psychological constructs and teaching approaches are based (Hayslip & Panek, 1989; Tennant, 1990; Goodnow, 1990; Merrill, 1993). There is a need to explore the implications of these new understandings for teaching ethics in the professions.

This paper will explore the implications of competing understandings of adult development for facilitating professional ethical development. The paper first reviews competing perspectives in developmental theory and research. Second, an integrative teaching-learning model is proposed which incorporates alternative presuppositions. Finally, the paper explores how the model may be used to improve teaching practice.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Noting similar presuppositions underlying prominent theories of moral, ethical, and intellectual development, reviewers have clustered these theories together as "stage" theories of adult development across the lifespan (Daloz, 1986; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991; Ferro, 1991). Developmental "stage" theorists and researchers include, among others, Kohlberg, Gilligan, Loevinger, Kegan, Perry, and Fowler. Not all theorists adhere to all the presuppositions attributed to the stage theory label. However, they do have in common at least several of the presuppositions listed in the left column of Figure 1 below. Revised understandings which have recently questioned presuppositions in the left column are summarized in the right column. (See Hayslip and Panek (1989), Tennant (1990), Goodnow (1990), and Merrill (1993) for more detailed analyses of the stage and life span/systems perspectives of adult development).

STAGE THEORY APPROACHES	LIFE SPAN/SYSTEMS APPROACHES
1. Development is linear, unidirectional, and orderly, following a normative, predictable sequence.	1. Development is cyclical, multidirectional, and unpredictable. Every life has a unique trajectory.
2. Development is discontinuous, and stepwise, following an identifiable progression of discrete steps or stages consisting of transitions and relatively stable plateaus.	2. Development is a continuous ebb and flow of repetitive patterns, alternative pathways, ambiguity and uniqueness.
3. Development is largely the result of internal factors, with minimal influence from the external environment (context).	3. Development is strongly "interactive"--an ongoing dialectic between internal and external factors which are continually being influenced by each other.
4. The social environment is neutral, benign, and free-market in quality.	4. The social environment is often directive, controlling, and heavily invested in an individual's development.
5. Developmental research is value-neutral. Minimal attention is given to the content and acquisition of values about knowledge and skill that underlie developmental constructs.	5. Developmental research is value-rich. Increased attention is given to the content and acquisition of value that underlie psychological accounts of adult development.
6. Development is uni-dimensional. Different theorists develop separate constructs with minimal trans-disciplinary interaction.	6. Development is multi-directional, eclectic, integrative, holistic, comprehensive, pluralistic, and trans-disciplinary.

FIGURE 1. Underlying Presuppositions of Stage and Life Span Development Approaches.

Recent changes in underlying presuppositions outlined in Figure 1 reflect "general stirrings toward change within developmental psychology" resulting from growing awareness of gaps in current psychological accounts, highlighted by sociological perspectives, and cross-cultural research (Goodnow, 1990, p. 82). This paper will propose a teaching-learning model for facilitating ethical development in the professions which incorporates new understandings from sociology and cross-cultural research, yet which presents these complex perspectives in a manner that can be readily grasped and used by educators in practice.

THE PROFESSIONAL ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT (P.E.D.) MODEL

MODEL OBJECTIVES

The professional ethical development (P.E.D.) model presented in this paper:

1. Integrates multiple perspectives of moral, intellectual, and ethical development within one framework,
2. Highlights the central roles that values about knowledge and skill play in development,
3. Portrays development as a dynamic interaction between learner and environment,
4. Allows for variable growth patterns, ambiguity, and uniqueness,
5. Traces alternative pathways to moral maturity influenced by factors of gender, contextual influences, and proactive efforts to resist controlling attempts of social forces,
6. Accounts for cyclical, repetitious aspects of adult development, qualitative progress toward greater cognitive complexity, sophisticated value orientations,and comprehensive

cognitive and relational skills,

7. Allows for identifiable growth/learning orientations, yet presents these growth orientations within a "continuum" framework for fluidity, variability, and uniqueness,
8. Portrays ethical development as complex, yet direct enough to understand, remember, and practically apply.

MODEL BASES

The P.E.D. model consists of four developmental bases representing four basic values perspectives and social role-relationship orientations which undergird prominent stage theories of ethical, intellectual, and moral development. Table 1 below identifies in matrix format relationships between the four stages of the P.E.D. model and various stages of developmental research schemes by Kohlberg, Gilligan, Loevinger, Perry, and Fowler. Table 2 highlights in matrix format relationships among values about knowledge and skills, social roles, and cognitive developmental tasks articulated by competing accounts of adult development. Table 3 depicts alternative pathways to moral maturity among the four P.E.D. model bases using baseball diamonds as visual representation devises.

APPLICATION: FACILITATING PROFESSIONAL ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT

The P.E.D. Model presents a dynamic developmental framework to explore the usefulness of a number of teaching strategies for stimulating professional ethical development. These strategies are: matching, challenging, and supporting/stabilizing.

MATCHING

The "matching" strategy, articulated by Tennant (1988) and Grow (1991) accommodates different learning styles, and differing levels of willingness and ability for self-directedness. "Matching" involves diagnosing the developmental stage or level of a learner and using strategies which accommodate learning styles and skill levels of learners at that particular stage of development. An example of a "matching" strategy within the P.E.D. framework is to use transmission as a teaching intervention with professionals who have an "adopting" orientation. A transmission teaching intervention is consistent with learners' underlying assumptions about values and ethics, and with their current cognitive skill levels at processing ethical issues. Using a "matching" strategy creates learning environments free from cognitive dissonance. For example, at early stages of a relationship between an educator and learners a matching strategy reduces ambiguity in the learning environment so that trust relationships can be formed. Wapner (1978) cautions, however, that a matching strategy alone is insufficient. Wapner (1978) comments:

> ...with a match in cognitive style there is a greater mutual attraction of student and teacher, greater communication through use of similar communication modes, and greater understanding and creation of good atmosphere for learning. But is this the kind of an environment optimal if it conforms to the students expectations? Is an environment optimal if the student and teacher have understanding because they share similarity of viewpoint? A powerful argument can be made that opposition, contradiction and obstacles are necessary conditions for individual development and creativity (p. 77-78).

CHALLENGING

A second strategy, described by Cross (1981), Tennant (1988), Kasworm (1988), and Brookfield (1989), avoids creating harmonious, comfortable, pleasing learning environments. Instead, it "challenges" learners by exposing them to alternative ways of thinking, encouraging critical scrutiny of personal, vocational, or political realities, or creating learning experiences which confront professionals with the inadequacy of current modes of thinking and acting. Within the P.E.D. framework, an example of a "challenging" strategy would be complicate ethical decision-making efforts of medical professionals with an adapting orientation by encouraging them to move beyond strictly detached, analytical approaches to resolving ethical dilemmas by incorporating compassion and connectedness into their relationships with patients.

TABLE 1
DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE THEORIES AND THE P.E.D. MODEL

P.E.D. MODEL Professional Ethical Development	KOLBERG (1970) Stages of Moral Reasoning	GILLIGAN (1982) Moral Development of Women	LOEVINGER (1976) Ego Development	PERRY (1970) Intellectual/Ethical Development	FOWLER (1981) Faith Development
	Premoral Stage • No concept of rules or authority		Impulsive Stage • Impulsive • Fear of retaliation		Primal Faith • A primal sense of intimacy and trust within family
(1) Adopting (Appropriation) • Professional senses the importance of ethics • Limited experience • Lacks understanding • Begins to develop awareness and sensitivity to ethical issues • Adopts a code of ethics	Preconventional Stage • Conformity to rules as set down by others Conventional Stage • Loyalty to rules as set down by others	Self Preservation Stage • Primary concern is for one's own survival in the face of powerlessness	Self Protective Stage • Fear of being caught • Externalizing blame Conformist Stage • Conformity to external rules • Guilt/shame for breaking rules Conscientious Conformist Stage • Differentiation of norms • Awareness of self in relation to group	(1) Sees world in polar terms; accepts authority as absolute (2) Perceives disagreement among authorities, but discounts it as unwarranted confusion (3) Accepts uncertainty in areas where authority hasn't found "The Answer" yet	Intuitive Projective Faith • Ist attempts at meaning Mythic Literal Faith • Acceptance of rules & implicit values as laid down by one's faith community
(2) Adapting (Individuation) • Ethical sensitivity increases • Understandings move beyond adopted code • Introspection • Revises and adapts • Considers alternative perspectives • Formulates own ethical framework	Postconventional Stage • One defines one's own values in terms of ethical principles one has chosen to follow		Conscientious Stage • Self evaluated standards • Guilt/shame for consequences of actions, self criticism • Long term goals, ideals	(4,5) Realizes uncertainty is extensive, perceives knowledge & values to be contextual, relativistic (6,7) Apprehends necessity to orient self in a relativistic world, makes initial commitments	Synthetic Conventional Faith • Is compelled by emerging self identity to challenge own tradition and to try out alternative traditions Individuative Reflective Faith • The faith of one's community is reappropriated in a personally revised form
(3) Accommodating (Contextualization) • Uses out more sophisticated ethics • Contextualizes values • Negotiation, flexibility • Sensitivity & respect for convictions of others		Caring/Responsibility Stage • "The good" is equated with caring for others • Self sacrifice is considered the highest virtue • Responsibility is assumed for unequal, dependant persons	Individualistic Stage • Respect for individuality • Differentiation of inner life from outer • Attention to social problems	(8) Experiences implications of personal commitments; explores subjective and stylistic issues of responsibility	Universalizing Faith (7) • The welter of beliefs & religions are embraced in an attitude of universal acceptance
(4) Deliberating (Integration) • Experiences internal conflicts in ethical framework difficult to resolve • Balances conflicting values across roles & responsibilities • Develops skills in critical self reflection • Increased toleration of ambiguity in ethical arena		"Equitable Balance" Stage • An equitable balance is attained between own sense of self and relationships to others • Self becomes a legitimate object of care	Autonomous Stage • Coping with conflicting inner needs, tolerant • Respect for autonomy • Interdependence Integrated Stage • Resolving inner conflicts • Renunciation of the unattainable • Cherishing individuality	(9) Experiences affirmation of own identity among multiple responsibilities; realizes personal commitments as an ongoing, unfolding expression of personally chosen lifestyle	Paradoxical Faith (6) • Faith lives and flourishes while still maintaining a healthy openness to paradoxes, ambiguities & uncertainties of life • Truth is perceived in dialectic interplay, conflicting views of reality are held in creative tension

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TABLE 2
P.E.D. MODEL VARIABLES

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE	ADOPTING	ADAPTING	ACCOMMODATING	DELIBERATING
MODE OF THINKING	Interpretation, Application	Principled Moral Reasoning	Contextualization, Situated Cognition	Wisdom
MORAL ORIENTATION	Rules (Authority)	Universal Principles/ Values	Situations/Relationships	Situated Principles, Heuristics, Mature World View
ETHIC	Respect, Duty, Loyalty, Obedience	Rights, Justice, Equity, Fairness	Responsibility, Care, Compassion	Love, Devotion, Contribution
LEARNING BEHAVIORS	Obeying, Appropriating, Interpreting, Applying, Emulating, Copying.	Examining, Individuating, Internalizing, Questioning, Reflecting, Choosing.	Extrapolating, Situating, Responding, Caring, Practicing, Contextualizing.	Integrating, Deliberating, Balancing, Synthesizing, Settling, Resolving, Envisioning, Leading, Contributing
SOCIAL ORIENTATION	Dependence	Separateness	Connectedness	Interdependence Balancebetween dependence, separateness & connectedness
PERSPECTIVE OF VALUES OF OTHERS	Rejecting, Ignoring, Opposing	Examining, Comparing, Contrasting, Evaluating, Choosing	Accommodating, Tolerating, Appreciating, Understanding	Interacting with, Contributing to, Transforming
TEACHING ORIENTATION	Transmitting, Explaining, Confronting, Reinforcing Rewarding, Modeling, Mentoring, Respecting.	Exposing,Questioning,Unsettling, Challenging, Withdrawing, Modeling, Mentoring, Respecting.	Initiating, Guiding, Discussing, Post-mortoming, Demonstrating, Modeling, Mentoring, Respecting.	Joining, Collaborating, Sharing, Withdrawing
SCHOOLS OF MORAL PHILOSOPHY	Aristotelian School (Aristotle, Durkeim)	Liberal School (Kant, Rawls)	Situation Ethics, Virtue Based Ethics (Fletcher, Gilligan)	Eclectic, Dialectic Perspectives (Dewey, Rawls)
THEORIES OF MORAL EDUCATION	Durkeim, Character Education, Kohlberg's Just Community Schools Approach.	Kohlberg's Dilemma Discussion Approach, Values Clarification, Humanities Approaches	Feminist Approaches (Noddings, Lyons)	Integrative, Eclectic, Interactionist Approaches (Dewey, Wilson)
PROFESSIONAL EXEMPLARS	Military, Ministry	Medicine, Law	Nursing, Teacher Education	Physical Therapy, Adult Education?
RELATIONAL METAPHORS	Parent Child	Counselor-Client	Master Craftsman-Apprentice	Senior Colleague Junior Colleague
LIMITATIONS (PITFALLS TO AVOID)	Tribalism, Dogmatism, Naive Realism	Extreme Individualism, Cold Rationalism, Indifference	Co-dependency, Overextending, Self-neglect, Compromising personal integrity	Crusading, Withdrawing, Universal Acceptance

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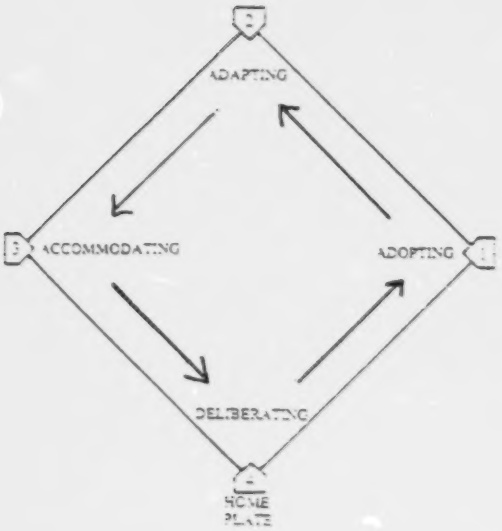
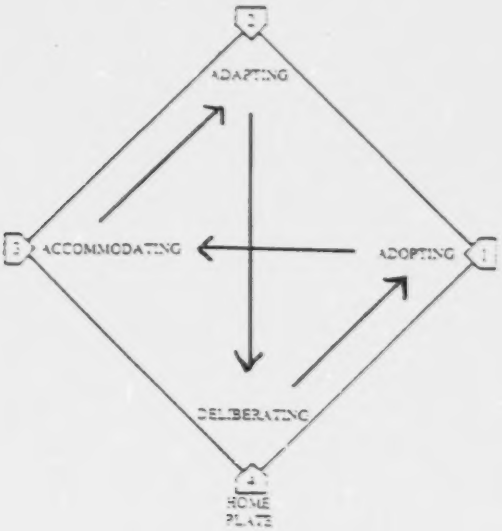
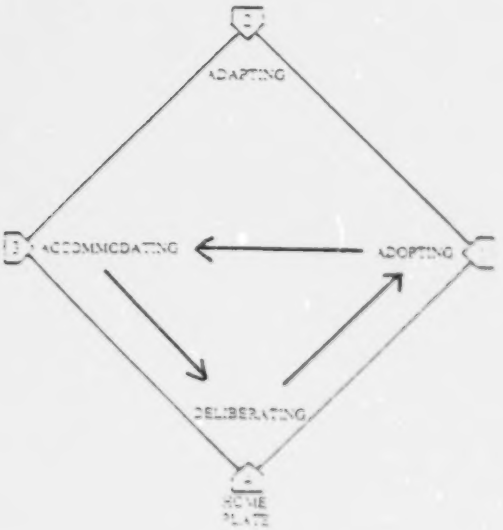
TABLE 3
ALTERNATIVE PATHWAYS TO MORAL MATURITY



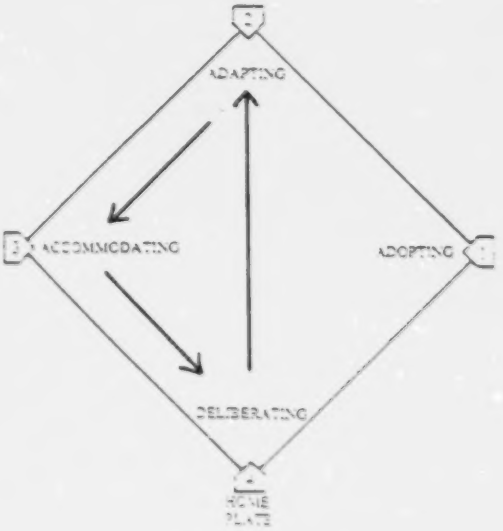
EARLY HIGH ROAD TRAJECTORY



DELAYED HIGH ROAD TRAJECTORY



LOW ROAD TRAJECTORY



"RESISTOR" TRAJECTORY

SUPPORTING/STABILIZING

In addition to the matching and challenging strategies, Kasworm (1988) stresses the need to provide ongoing encouragement and support to learners as they attempt to make sense of complex ethical challenges. Kasworm observes that adults seek both challenge, and resolution, greater clarification and balance in their lives. Educators must become skillful at assuming paradoxical roles of catalyst, challenger, and destabilizer, and of encourager and supporter. Within the P.E.D. framework, for example, the supportive role might involve collaboratively exploring and making sense of a particularly challenging ethical dilemma faced by learners at the deliberating stage, providing learners with skills to address challenges in more sophisticated ways, sharing perspectives to broaden their understanding of issues, or merely being there to provide security and support when learners venture forth from the comforting familiarity of one developmental orientation to expand their perspectives of what it means to be ethical in practice.

CONCLUSION

As concern about ethical practices has grown in the professions during recent years, so has concern as to how to facilitate ethical development. By highlighting the important roles that values, and social context play in ethical development, this paper hopes to stimulate further research on issues such as: the extent to which values and societal influences impact the ethical development of professionals, and the nature and extent of variability in growth patterns of professionals as they gain experience and skill in ethical decision-making and action. By providing a dynamic developmental framework for gaining a broader understanding of ethical development, the paper also hopes to assist educators to improve their effectiveness as facilitators of professional ethical development.

(References will be provided upon request)

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INTERGENERATIONAL EQUITY AND ITS MEANING TO ADULT EDUCATION

Margaret E. Holt and Maria Cseh

ABSTRACT

Intergenerational equity, sometimes called "justice between the generations" (Hoskins, 1987, p. 5) is both philosophically and developmentally intriguing. Demographic evidence is plentiful to posit a preparation for battle between the nursing home and nursery school sets due to political and social strains. Laslett and Fishkin (1992) write that intergenerational equity has been neglected by scholars and especially unattended in the West. Thus far, adult education scholars have not paid a focused attention to this topic except with largely writings about family literacy or gerontology. More typically the topic has been attended to in journals about children and social work. Better understanding of some of the research questions may assist adult educators in practices leading to resolution of intergenerational conflicts at micro and macro levels of society, add clarification to our understanding of Knowle's challengeable notions of dependence and independence, and better frame our knowledge of how values and technologies change within and between generations in our society, the aging of our population, changes in family structures, care- giving, and stereotyping of intergenerational conflict and competition. This topic is especially poignant to adult education, since this filed has emphasized the importance of lifelong learning and generally advocated public policy for equity across generations.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to define intergenerational equity, consider why it is important to researchers and practitioners in adult education, and delineate some implications for research in the field.

WHAT IS INTERGENERATIONAL EQUITY?

> The beginning of wisdom comes when a person plants a tree, the shade under which he knows he will not sit. (Middle Eastern Proverb)

Simply, Hoskins (1987) would define intergenerational equity to be justice between the generations and probably the best writing edited on the topic by Laslett and Fishkin (1992) is subtitled Justice Between Age Groups and Generations. They contend that intergenerational equity has become a notable international theme in the 1990s, but until recently has been neglected by scholars and especially unattended in the West. Stearns'(1989) conclusion that in Western societies positive intergenerational models were nonexistent in the pre- industrial periods may partially explain why the topic is not accentuated. He does feel that in the past fifteen years much more research has been conducted on old age in Western society. Perhaps, the punctuation of worldwide environmental degradation in the 1960s brought issues of generational obligations to the fore, as possibilities for planetary spoil and destruction were increasingly disrobed by national media. Hoskins (1987) contends that the public was sensitized dramatically to the issue when the president of the Population Association of American in 1984 provided statistical evidence in Scientific American that older people were faring far better than children in the U.S., although acknowledging that many of the elderly were still barely surviving above the poverty line.

> **Q:** Advocates for the elderly have told me they are upset that a lot of new available state money- - particularly from the Indigent Care Trust Fund- - is going to help children. They are concerned more of it isn't going to help the elderly.
> **A:** I realize there is a tension there. Children don't vote. Elderly people do and are a very strong part of the political process. I hope that the advocates for elderly people will see that I have tried to be fair about the needs of the elderly and of children. They both need help in this state. I think if we are smart and approach this thing right, we can meet the needs of both. There is no reason why the elderly need to fear that the children are going to take away their resources. (Howard, 1993, p. A2)

This inquiry to the Lieutenant Governor of Georgia illuminates a growing political, sociological, and philosophical tension in the United States related to age- group- advocacy and limited monetary resources for social programs. Increasingly, social needs are seeded with a potential to sprout a domestic war between the generations. Although this public official may try to comfort constituents about a pending generational conflict, demographic evidence is plentiful to posit a preparation for battle between the nursing home and the nursery school due to political and social strain resulting from Federal budget allocations (Hoskins, 1987).

WHY IS INTERGENERATIONAL EQUITY IMPORTANT TO ADULT EDUCATION?

Certainly, this topic is especially poignant to adult education, since this field has dramatically emphasized the importance of lifelong learning and generally advocated public policy understanding for equity across generations. Some surveys indicate the tension between the generations is actually not as severe as publicized, and when it does surface is more a result of social class divisions than strictly age groups (Hoskins, 1987). Adult educators in many contexts are in an excellent position to facilitate cross- generational conversations and programs in helping individuals and families find common ground. Interestingly, most of the literature, popular and scholarly, has focused on the very young and the very old in discussions of intergenerational equity, and for some reason ignored the less immediately volatile folks in the middle of the lifespan. However, the middle group may be in the best "position" to moderate the debates, because they are sandwiched between the extremes with recognized commitments to both. "The Middle Adult Years constitute a time period punctuated by these two events that would call for an assessment of an intergenerational meaning for life" (Jackson, 1993, p. 8). Single generations may make choices regarding public policy that appear to be binding for all successor generations, however for some issues these kind of choices may be far from equitable as cohort sizes or populations shift over time. Baby boom and baby bust generations' impacts on social policies and institutions make this increasingly clear.

> To take a simplified example of the effect of differential cohort sizes, the junior editor of this series is a member of so- called Baby Boom generation. His children are members of a much smaller cohort. During their adulthood, his children will be required to contribute to the support of an elderly populations vastly increased in size over that of the present in the United States. Yet their prospects of receiving similar treatment in their later years will depend to a considerable extent on the relative size of the cohorts, as yet uniform, who will be adults during those years. Given the processional character of generational relations, A (the current Baby Boom generation) will find itself supported by B and B in turn by C. If A is much larger than B and the size of C is present unknowable, the per capita sacrifice of the Bs may be far greater than anything the As had to pay, but the prospects of receiving any comparable benefits are completely uncertain given the unknowable character of C. Further more, by the time the Cs come along, the As will be disappearing. There will be no possibility of redress because the previous beneficiaries will have passed away in the interim. The temporary asymmetry of the parties involves disappearing beneficiaries and unknowable per person sacrifices. (Laslett & Fishkin, 1992, pp. 2- 3)

Decisions about the environment, welfare, social security [Hoskins, 1987] and health care, for example, are good for challenges to shorter-time thinking and planning. Conscientious and critical thinking about such issues demands affirmations of ethics, morality, and values. "All that can be confidently asserted, however is that when it dawned on biologists, philosophers, moralists, and journalists in the 1960s that there really could come an epoch when the spring would be silent because there were no birds to sing, an overt tradition of speculation and assertion were simply lacking" (Laslett & Fishkin, 1992, p. 18).

> After all, the men and women of every generation must share the same earth- - the only earth we have- - and so we also share a responsibility to ensure that what one generation calls the future will be able to mature safely into what another generation will call the present. (Gore, 1992, p. 236)

Thus far, adult education journals have not paid much attention to this topic except with some writings about family literacy or gerontology generally. More frequently the topic has been attended to in journals about children, for example, The Journal of Children in Contemporary Society or writings by researchers in social work.

What do we know in adult education about learning when people of different ages take courses together? How does or can cross- generational instruction facilitate adult learning? The literature is inconsistent related to the attitudes of instructors toward learners of various ages. Melichar (1993) summarized her doctoral research as surprising when instructors in vocational-technical schools were not found to hold a more positive attitude toward traditionally aged learners [16-20 years]. The findings revealed the opposite with instructors reporting a slightly more positive attitude toward the nontraditionally aged students [26 + years]. She concluded, "However, this does not indicate that age equity is guaranteed in post secondary vocational technical institutes. Instead it indicates that while instructors view nontraditional students more positively with very few negative traits, a much greater number of negative traits are ascribed to traditional students." (p. 77)

Adult educators should be sensitive to intergenerational equity because of the interdependence of generations in our society, the aging of our population, changes in family structure and caregiving, and stereotypes of intergenerational conflict and competition. Also, there is more reporting of the social services. For those who amplify concern for economic productivity in this society, apprenticeships are often recognized as unfortunately lost models of job training. As, some would make a case for a return to the apprenticeship model of learning, what research has been done regarding the outcomes of apprenticeships that might enlarge knowledge of intergenerational equity and transgenerational learning?

> In America, the story of the rise of vocational education in the skilled trades is simultaneously the story of the decline of apprenticeship. As the ideology of expanded schooling took hold and the nature of the workplace changed, we gave up opportunities for learning in the workplace in favor of school-based vocational education. School- like forms of instruction now dominate even in many "on-the-job" training programs. In the military, in community colleges, and in proprietary training institutes, the classroom culture often dominates, and difficulties frequently arise in the transition to actual job functioning. (Resnick, 1987, p. 17)

One additional reason for adult educators to advance intergenerational equity is Laslett and Fishkin's (1992) conjecture that "justice to future persons with whom we have no contact is analogous to, perhaps logically identical with, justice to distant persons elsewhere in the world who are inaccessible to us;..." (p. 20). In other words, exploring issues of intergenerational equity may have useful translations for multicultural and diversity facilitation.

WHAT ARE SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION?

Better- researched programs that teach people much more about adult development across the life-span where the young are introduced to more of the new research about the old and vice versa could help with eradication of the false myths and assumptions about aging and youth. Elkind (1988), for example, identifies several assumptions about the so-called generational gaps that would suggest the existence of intergenerational inequity where children are in great jeopardy due to the evaporation of parenting and concomitant standards for the healthy guidance of young people. Some of the assumptions he challenges are these:

- Conflicts between parents and teenagers come from conflicting value orientations of the different generations
- Transition from dependence to independence is one of the important transitions from childhood to adolescence
- In a prefigurative society [here Elkind is citing Margaret Mead who posed that in this type of society change is very rapid], values and technologies change within and not between generations.

Regarding these assumptions Elkind (1988) contends there is "abundant evidence" that adults do change and can accept the newer orientations of youth, as adults are also subjected to the grandeur changes in the social environment. He points out that movement from dependence to independence is not so neatly linear, is actually exceedingly complex, and that in development young adults actually "learn both self- independence and self-dependence." His statement about the meaning of this assumption for parenting is poignant: "Rather, it is the discontinuity between the economic dependence and the social independence within contemporary youth that is upsetting to contemporary parents" (p. 38).

Finally, he makes a strong argument against propositions that young people are incredibly flexible and adaptive in a rapidly progressing society and presents evidence [substance abuse, obesity, teenage suicide, e.g. to the contrary that argues that "children are not more adapted but rather more stressed than are adults" (p. 40). Elkind (1988) refers to all these assumptions as "miseducation", and thus he has extended a challenge for adult educators who research parenting and parent education.

Another slant on this would be to examine findings of researchers such as Dannefer and Perlmutter (1990) and consider what the implications across generations might be to knowledge of the environmental habituation process as a "theory of aging" might mean for instruction at all ages. This theory suggests that if there exist unchanging experiences for individual people, "large areas of the individual's information- processing system may essentially shut down...If experience is not varied, performance eventually deteriorates" (p. 113).

Can we expect a greater consideration of intergenerational equity in the present time because the baby boom is greying and moving into the stage where Erikson (1963) proposes the chance for even greater commitments to generativity? Or will more obvious natural events like the deterioration of the air, soil, and water awaken the citizenry? Or, will there be for other reasons entirely such as child advocacy and a new or renewed consideration of social justice issues?

"The bounty of nature is not ours to waste," he [Clinton] said. "It is a gift from God that we hold in trust for future generations" (AJC Editorial, 1993).

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INTERNATIONALIZING EXTENSION CURRICULUM: A STUDY OF THE ATTITUDES OF OHIO AGRICULTURAL AND METROPOLITAN LEADERS

Mrs. Barbara G. Ludwig

ABSTRACT

Little is known about the attitudes of agricultural or metropolitan leaders in Ohio which help to shape their global perspectives. Surveying leaders from Extension's traditional agricultural constituency and its growing metropolitan clientele was seen as important to future curriculum development and staff in-service education. Three hundred eighty-five leaders were randomly selected to participate in the study. The target population consisted of three strata of Ohio citizens: county agriculture leaders, state agriculture leaders and metropolitan leaders; 82% responded to a mail questionnaire. A five-point, Lickert-type scale was used to measure attitudes on four dimensions: third world development and poverty, international trade, sensitivity to other cultures and Extension involvement in global education. Statistically significant differences (<.05) were found between the three groups on each dimension. In all instances where there were significant differences, the attitudes of county agricultural leaders were less positive than metropolitan leaders or Ohio agricultural leaders. Strongest agreement was noted with statements which acknowledged respondent's ability to learn from other cultures, valued citizen exchanges between countries, indicated Extension had a role to play in educating farmers and agribusiness owners about global markets, global issues and third world development, and saw Extension staff needing additional training, particularly related to global markets.

INTRODUCTION

Extension systems across the country have been challenged to integrate international perspectives into programs and assist staff and clientele in developing global competency. For the past decade, national Extension leaders have encouraged state Extension systems to internationalize (Patton, 1984; York, 1984; Somersan, 1992; Skinner, 1991). The Extension Committee on Organization and Policy (ECOP, 1984) published a position paper which included a mission statement and policies to provide future guidance for effective Extension participation in international activities. The policy emphasized work in and with developing countries and the provision of educational programs to U.S. citizens and clientele to improve understanding of "international trade, agricultural cooperative production, world hunger and marketing policies" (USDA, 1984, p.8).

Ingle (1990) in reporting findings from studies on "Internationalization of U.S. University Systems" and "Internationalizing U.S. Universities" noted that in public service and cooperative extension areas, external clients are viewed as non-supportive. Thus, many leaders feel a need to handle internationalization "with care." Poston and O'Rourke (1990) researched the attitudes of all Cooperative Extension Service directors and administrators in the United States and its Territories toward internationalization of the Extension System to determine the extent to which CES was bringing a global dimension to its programs and activities. The study indicated that clientele attitude was one of the key factors acting as a barrier to the globalization of Cooperative Extension programs and activities. Educational programs, especially those provided to clientele groups were seen as very necessary.

Extension prides itself on developing curriculum and educational programs in response to the needs and interest of people. When the Ohio State University Extension began to internationalize its program, a study of faculty and staff interested in adding a global perspective to current programming was conducted. Attitudes were positive, but staff expressed the belief that clientele were not supportive of internationalizing Extension in Ohio. The perceived lack of support or interest by clientele was recognized as a barrier to internationalizing extension. A review of literature revealed little was known about the attitudes of leaders which help to shape their global perspective. A need to study citizen attitudes toward: other cultures, the global market place, and development issues was identified. Surveying leaders from both traditional agricultural constituency and Extension's growing metropolitan clientele was identified as one way to better understand citizen attitudes towards global issues.

PURPOSE

The purpose of the study was to identify the attitudes of Ohio agricultural and metropolitan leaders toward four international dimensions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the attitudes of Ohio leaders toward third world development and poverty?
2. What are the attitudes of Ohio leaders toward international trade?
3. What are the attitudes of Ohio leaders toward other cultures?
4. What are the attitudes of Ohio leaders toward involvement of Extension in global education?
5. What differences in attitudes exist among the groups sampled?

METHODOLOGY

INSTRUMENTATION

A mail questionnaire, titled "Global Issues for Ohio's Citizens" was developed. A five point, Likert-type scale was used to measure attitudes on the four dimensions: (1) third world development and poverty, (2) international trade, (3) sensitivity to other cultures, (4) Extension involvement in global education. Respondents were asked to identify whether they: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree, (4) strongly agree or (5) don't know how they feel about a series of statements on the topic. Only the numbers 1-4 were used in calculating the scale values. An open-ended question requested additional comments on Extension incorporating global concepts into educational programs. Respondent personological information including: age, gender, level of schooling completed, birth in the United States, ethnicity, language proficiency (other than English) and time spent outside of the United States was collected. Content validity was established by a panel of experts from the College of Agriculture at The Ohio State University. To help control measurement error the questionnaire was piloted and field tested. Cronbach's alpha for the instrument was .87. This met criteria (Nunnally, 1967) established for reliability.

POPULATION

The target population consisted of three strata of Ohio leaders: county agriculture leaders, state level agriculture leaders and metropolitan leaders. A sample of 385 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) was identified using a proportionate stratified random sampling technique to allow a 5% margin of error in estimating the mean attitude score for each dimension.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The questionnaire and a personalized cover letter were mailed to identified leaders in June, 1991. Questionnaires were coded to identify early and late respondents among county agricultural leaders, Ohio agricultural leaders, and metropolitan leaders and to assess non-response error. An introductory post card and three follow-up mailings to encourage returns from non-respondents were used. Non-response error was assessed using late respondents (n=42) as a surrogate for non-respondents (Miller and Smith, 1983). Using a t-test at the .05 alpha level, no significant

differences were found between early (n=264) and late respondents' domains of interest. Therefore, results can be generalized from the sample to the accessible population.

RESULTS

Three hundred sixteen (82%) of the questionnaires were returned. Returns closely approximated the proportions in the population. Responses were coded for computer analysis and the Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. A .05 level of significance was established a priori. Descriptive statistics were used.

ANOVA was used to determine differences between the three target groups on each dimension. Statistically significant differences (<.05) were found between groups on each of the dimensions. A Scheff post hoc test was used to identify where significant differences occurred between groups. As reported in Table 1, Metropolitan leaders exhibited the most positive attitudes toward each international dimensions studied. On each dimension, county agricultural leaders were the most negative of the three groups targeted for study.

Table 1
Attitude of Ohio Leaders Toward Global Issues

DIMENSIONS	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
1) THIRD WORLD DEVELOPMENT/POVERTY	2.88	.39
2) INTERNATIONAL TRADE	2.77	.44
3) SENSITIVITY TO OTHER CULTURES	3.07	.37
4) EXTENSION INVOLVEMENT IN GLOBAL EDUCATION	2.90	.40
OVERALL (1, 2, 3 & 4)	2.91	.31

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; 4 = Strongly Agree

Attitudes of Ohio leaders toward global issues were positive, but not strongly so. A Lickert type scale was used to calculate scale values with 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree; and 5 = don't know. Only the numbers of 1-4 were used to calculate scale values. Negative items were reverse coded so the dimension could be summated. Respondents showed the most positive attitudes toward cultural sensitivity ($\bar{X}$ =3.07, SD .37). Slightly less positive attitudes were shown toward extension involvement in global education ($\bar{X}$ = 2.9, SD .40), third world development ($\bar{X}$ = 2.77, SD .44). Table 2 reports the results.

Table 2
ANOVA: Attitudes Toward Global Dimensions

	Third World Development/ Poverty		International Trade		Sensitivity to Other Cultures		Extension Involvement in Global Education	
Groups	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
County Agriculture Leaders (n=91)	2.73[ab]	.38	2.59[ab]	.45	2.97[a]	.35	2.77[a]	.42
Metropolitan Leaders (n=133)	2.95[b]	.36	2.86[b]	.38	3.14[a]	.37	3.03[ab]	.32
State Agriculture Leaders (n=80)	2.92[a]	.39	2.84[a]	.48	3.06	.35	2.83[b]	.44
Source	df	F	df	F	df	F	df	F
Main Effects	2	10.07*	2	10.07*	2	6.40*	2	13.71*

*p<.05 a,b - means with common superscript differ significantly

Strongest agreement was noted with statements which 1) acknowledged respondent's ability to learn from other cultures and countries, 2) valued citizen exchanges between countries, 3) indicated Extension had a role to play in educating farmers and agribusiness owners about global markets, 4) global issues, 5) third world development and 6) saw Extension staff needing additional training, particularly related to global markets. Strongest disagreement was with statements which indicated: 1) American farmers did not need education on global issues, 2) global interdependence is a myth, 3) a major obstacle to economic development in poor countries is people who do not work hard, 4) U.S. responsibility extends only to its own farmers and 5) foreigners in the U.S. were taking jobs from U.S. citizens.

CONCLUSIONS

1) Overall, the groups targeted for study were positive in their attitude toward global issues, but not strongly so.

2) Metropolitan Leaders exhibited the most positive attitudes toward all three international dimensions studied. County agricultural leaders were significantly (<.05) more negative in attitudes toward: (1) third world development and poverty, (2) international trade, and (3) sensitivity to other cultures.

3) County agricultural leaders were the most negative of the three groups targeted for study in attitudes toward all three international dimensions studied. County agriculture leaders were significantly (<.05) more negative than Ohio agricultural leaders on attitudes toward third world development\poverty and international trade.

4) County agricultural leaders, Ohio agricultural leaders and metropolitan leaders studied expressed the attitude that America's farmers, agribusinesses and rural leaders need education about competing in global markets. Respondents indicated we can learn from the culture and technologies of other countries and felt citizen exchanges between countries improved the ability of participants to understand and care about how other people live. Attitudes expressed indicate Extension has a role to play in helping clientele understand global issues, global marketing and the role of agriculture development in third world countries.

APPLICATION TO PRACTICE

Each day evidence is found reinforcing the importance of understanding ourselves and others. Individual choices impact the global village we inhabit. This applies to decisions at all levels: economic, political and social. For most people in the world, direct experience with other countries and cultures is infrequent or nonexistent. Even in the U.S., with its geographically mobile society, a tendency exists to stay within our own communities and circle of acquaintances.

Surveying leaders from both traditional agricultural constituency and Extension's growing metropolitan clientele has helped increase understanding of existing attitudes toward global issues. Now that this information has been gathered, curriculum development and staff in-service education programs for Extension can be based on identified needs rather than assumptions.

Extension needs to educate staff and clientele regarding global issues and the many interrelationships which exist. The study indicated global marketing and international trade should be targeted for emphasis and reinforced ES-USDA recommendations in Going Global (1989). Traditional county agricultural constituency may require curriculum designed to broaden their understanding of third world development. Any curriculum developed needs to incorporate opportunities for citizens of different cultures to meet and exchange ideas. This may mean travel or better utilization of visiting students, scholars and foreign nationals living within local communities.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND FEMINIST PHASE THEORY: PRACTICING WHAT WE TEACH

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ABSTRACT

Adult education is among a growing body of disciplines examining the role and evolution of feminist orientation and study. Recent publications have illustrated this process and effort. Feminist phase theory, developed by Tetreault, is used as a framework from which these developments are viewed. Although there are indications that the impact of feminist study is being felt, most of the materials discovered fell into Tetreault's second and third phases of Compensatory and Bifocal Scholarship in a five phase model.

INTRODUCTION

The impact of feminist study has been assessed in a number of disciplines: history, literature, anthropology, philosophy, sociology, psychology and education. A number of models and research techniques have been developed and tested to document impact, as well as to outline and advocate for further changes. Authors and researchers view feminist study from the perspectives of transforming curriculum, publications, history, learning environments, educators and the women themselves. The current approaches to women and gender in adult education have had minimal assessment under such frameworks.

ADULT EDUCATION

There has been a number of recent reviews and articles that illustrates the role of feminist study in adult education. Blundell (1992) notes that although women play a major role in adult education as both learners and educators, little attention has been paid to the issue of gender. Hayes (1992), studying publications, discovered that little feminist impact was in fact found in the professional adult education literature. Spendiff (1992) offers a view and description of how feminist adult education can develop. Ball (1992) calls for a turn to critical social research as a natural progression of feminist orientation. Although most authors find that adult education is lacking in its response to women in general and feminist study in particular, there have been no attempts to place adult education in a theoretical framework. The feminist phase theory, developed by Tetreault (1985), offers a model for this purpose.

FEMINIST PHASE THEORY

Feminist phase theory was developed to reflect the common views of women held by disciplines. Tetreault (1985) describes feminist phase theory as a natural evolutionary process of gender inclusion in academic settings.

Male scholarship, phase one, assumes that the male experience is the norm and shared by all. Women, as a group and individually, are ignored, not considered.

Compensatory scholarship, phase two, considers women as less than standard, noting them only when they, typically as individuals, are highly unusual or "non" standard. Theories, beliefs and practices are derived from males, and education is important for females to bring them up to "standard".

Bifocal scholarship, phase three, views the human experience as dual, male and female. In this view male and female experiences are complementary, separate, and equal. Strong roles are still expected of each gender.

Feminist scholarship, phase four, values women's experiences, allowing them to speak for themselves. The public experience is no longer considered to be more important than the private experience. Women are considered pluralistically and multidimensional: there are women who do

not fit imposed "norms". Questions are asked concerning the impact of race, class, sexual orientation and lifestyle on women.

Multifocal/relational scholarship, phase five, is gender balanced. There is a holistic view of the human experience, a realization that experiences are the same and different across genders.

FINDINGS

ADULT EDUCATION LITERATURE

Examples of adult education literature (45 journal articles and book chapters, 5 books and one monograph) were selected for review. All materials were published between 1980 and 1992, with 23 being published before 1988. All specifically addressed the female gender by utilization of women as subjects of study, or by writing about the female's role in adult education.

No materials were selected that illustrate the first phase, male scholarship. Several authors do discuss this level as experienced in adult education. Blundell (1992) focuses on curriculum, Hugo (1990) on historical gaps, Laird (1988) on teacher education ("women's true profession"), with Lomperis (1990) and Willie and Williams (1986) focusing on women as adult educators.

Literature illustrating the second phase of compensatory scholarship was abundant. Articles spoke about women's "deficits", preparing women to function "better" at home and work, helping women to find their "new confidence", and "women- friendly training and opportunities". Three articles illustrate this phase. Casling (1986) links "women's subjects" with women's role in the home. Her thesis is that "given that work in the home can be rightly regarded as productive, why, then are 'women's subjects' regarded as 'recreational' in adult education?" (p. 41). Laird (1988) focuses on "reformed" efforts concerning women as teachers, finding that the so-called gender neutral efforts are in fact blatantly contradictory and ambiguous, The "reformed" efforts view women as deficient, casting them into the role of teacher, only and forever. Merriam (1985) writes about her experience as a professor of adult education. The article's approach is that of women having deficit knowledge about how to be a professor. Stereotypes such as "...necessary to the success of women who have a career in academia is a husband who is genuinely supportive and secure" (p. 6), and offering tips on how to manage time and function on committees make up the bulk of the article.

Adult education literature offers even more illustrative examples in phase three, bifocal scholarship. These range from the documentation of the role of women in adult education (Willie & Williams, 1986; Lomperis, 1990), future trends and needs of women in adult education (Pirnot, 2987; Oglesby, 1991; Rice & Meyer, 1991), to the impact women's role in adult education has had on men (Gurden & Hardman, 1986). Two common themes appear repeatedly: the impact of feminist efforts and the uniqueness of adult women learners.

Feminist study and efforts are seen as challenging curriculum (Parsons, 1990), and theory (Miranda, 1980). Adult women learners are being studied at this level from a number of foci including: how they can be integrated into educational programs (Kroll, Deutch & McAuley, 1991), their decisions making styles (Stonewater, 1987), motivation (Clayton & Smith, 1987), psychosocial development (Good, Gilbert & Scher, 1990; Caffarella, 1992), and their experiences in general (Beer, 1988; Beer & Darkenwald, 1989; Hayes, 1989). Luttrell (1989) includes gender, race and class but still focuses on dual scholarship. Conclusions and comments frequently noted differences between male and female "norms, values and expectations", calling females a "special group" of learners.

Feminist scholarship (phase four) was less common. Hayes (1989) offers a theoretical model of feminist teaching. Weiler (1991) compares feminist study with Freire's work and teachings. Although Weiler sees feminist study and Freirean pedagogy as being similar in many foci areas, she notes several critical differences, including the influence and impact of women of color. Additionally, she challenges the assumption that all women are interested in the same issues found in bifocal scholarship. Several articles offered applied illustrations: O'Neil and Carroll (1988)

describe a process and training to increase gender awareness and roles; and Saul's (1992) evaluation of a women's studies conference combines both women's studies and a holistic model of continuing education for professionals.

Hart (1992) and Ball (1992) both offer strong support for the movement of adult education research and practice into the fourth phase. Ball accepts that more research needs to be done concerning women's experiences, and "...that we must not confine ourselves to studies women but rather to ensure that all research is gender-sensitive and acknowledges patriarchal social relations" (p. 13).

Even fewer examples were discovered illustrating the fifth, multifocal/relational scholarship, phase in adult education literature. Gumport (1986) researching feminist scholars, discovered that they are striving for a multi-disciplinary, social change orientation, and are faced with many difficulties. Ball (1992) echoes these difficulties as she and her colleagues attempt to more to this level in adult education. Ball feels that despite its potential to be so, adult education has often failed to be transformative due to its unwillingness to view and participate in critical social theory and action. Although this is particularly true with the issues of racism and sexism, Ball also finds a need for adult education to examine peace, environmental issues, gay rights and alternative lifestyles.

Spendiff (1992) writes about the meaning of feminist adult education, offering a historical review and comparisons of feminist approaches. Spendiff concludes "With knowledge of ourselves, and each other, we might no longer be powerless, and I suspect that this is why we meet with so much resistance to feminist ways of working. The education of women is a dangerous thing" (p. 129).

An excellent example of actual practice of this phase can be found in Cunningham's "Own Your Advocacy" (1990). Cunningham, responding to another author who believes that adult educators can and should be neutral, states that the public and personal are intertwined and that people cannot help but be swayed by their own values, experiences and beliefs.

CONCLUSION

IMPLICATIONS

Tetreault's model's evolutionary nature is critical, clearly each phase builds on earlier phases. During Compensatory and Bifocal Scholarship (phases 2 and 3), valuable information is learned about women and their experiences. This information was and is missing from our knowledge base. The danger would be that adult education stays in these early phases.

There is a sense that Feminist Scholarship (phase 4) is to be feared. However, this too is a critical step in the evolution. Only after women's experiences have been studied and validated, can true inclusiveness be experienced in the final Multifocal/relational Scholarship phase.

ANALYSIS

Adult education as a discipline, is moving through the second and third phases of the feminist phase theory. The following is a quick analysis of this process with illustrative questions being asked in each phase.

Male Scholarship There is little or no inclusion of women as subjects, no value placed on women's experiences, no consideration of women's needs. Common questions include: Why study women? Haven't they always been a part? Don't these theories (practices, needs, etc.) apply to them also?

Compensatory Scholarship Articles and efforts noting how women are missing, courses focusing on preparing women to make it in the (man's) world, and women being viewed as different, represent the prevalent modes of gender inclusion. Common questions include: How can the discipline retrieve information lost or never gathered about women? Who are the women who have "made it" (meet the male norms)? What have women done that are in the comfortable areas

of their traditional roles? Why are women rocking the boat? What courses can we offer to attract this "special" group (women)?

Bifocal Scholarship Many articles and efforts focus on women t compare their experience with men, there is acknowledgment that women have been "left out", and there are efforts to recapture lost history of the "typical" woman. Common questions include: How has women's adult education experiences been different than that of men's? How can we meet the unique needs of women in adult education? What motivates women? What support services do women need?

Multifocal/relational Scholarship Adult education practitioners and authors are beginning to call for a focus where genders are balanced in the framework of human experiences. Common questions include: How can adult education validate the full range of human experiences? How can we take into account gender without trying to reestablish norms and roles?

Lather (1984) notes that feminism "is the most diffused and politicized culture of resistance in the United States" (p. 59). Feminism is here to stay and adult education appears to be in the process of developing a data base concerning women and their multifaceted experiences. This is a large area that has been ignored, and it behooves adult education to recognize its' own practices and advocacy that stops the full inclusion of all adults.

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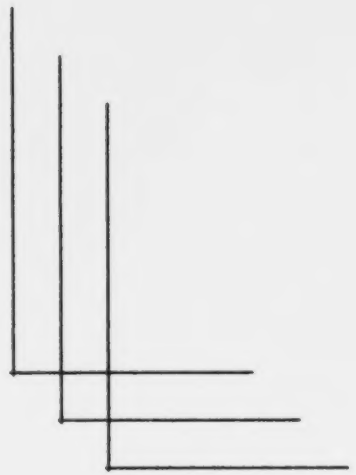

Human Resource Development

BACK of DIVIDER

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

While the field of human resource development is a clearly identifiable activity to those employed in Human Resource Departments in business and industry, for many of us in adult education the field's definition and boundaries are much less clear. As Karen Watkins has put it: "Like adult education generally, it is a field in search of a definition." (Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education, 1989). Interestingly, our conceptual difficulties aside, this is the fastest growing area of practice in the field of adult education in the United States.

Perhaps the confusion about Human Resource Development as a field of adult education is epitomized by its treatment in the Handbook. It is discussed in the division of the book entitled "Major Providers of Educational Programs For Adults", under a chapter heading of "Business and Industry". This seems to identify the field pretty clearly with the activity we all know as "training". The alternative placement (which would have seemed more appropriate to me) would have been in the division of the book labeled "Program Areas", where we find adult basic education and continuing education for the professions.

So, is human resource development just a new name for job training? Not according to the interesting definition offered by Watkins. "Human Resource Development is the field of study and practice responsible for the fostering of a long-term, work-related learning capacity at the individual, group and organizational level of organizations." (p. 427) The first thing to note about this definition is that while the employer is likely to be a provider, other types of providers could also be involved in human resource development. Second, the key objective is fostering a learning capacity, not acquiring particular skills.

With this broader definition in mind we can now survey the four papers in the human resource development category. Two of these papers (Conklin and Rollins & Golden) deal with continuing professional education, one (Pritz & Imel) deals with workplace literacy, and one (Laswell) takes us a good distance from "training" with its investigation of adult learning following job loss.

The Conklin paper reports the results of a study of professionals employed by The Ohio State University Extension. The study examines professionals' attitudes and competencies relative to the implementation of a broad new programming emphasis known as "issues programming". With her findings indicating professionals limited acceptance of this new emphasis, the author goes on to examine the concerns they expressed and the need for more effective in-service training.

Rollins and Golden report the results of a study performed to determine the educational needs of crop management technicians. Because the group (universe) to be studied was the 16 individuals doing this type of work in Pennsylvania, the authors chose focus groups as their data gathering technique. The data indicate that the technicians view themselves as basically providers of technical information to farmers. The authors seeing the key role that these people could play in more broadly educating farmers, advocate expanded training in adult education principles so the technicians could play this larger role.

The Pritz & Imel paper is the only one of this set of four which is not a research study. It is an exploration of the extent to which workplace literacy programs reflect good adult education practice. The paper advocates, as its title clearly states, "Involving Workers in Workplace Literacy." One of the ways to do this that is discussed in the paper is the DELTA process, which is a literacy task analysis based on input from workers themselves. With the national concern about low levels of workplace literacy running high, the authors caution against quick-fix solutions. They advocate theoretically grounded literacy programs, and continued research to determine the efficacy of the various programs in place.

And finally, the Laswell paper puts us into a totally different context. Instead of examining the educational needs of some category of employees, Laswell focuses on the psychological state of individuals who have recently become unemployed. The author's data was derived from an in depth study of six individuals who were dealing with job loss. The data reveal job loss to be an extraordinary event in a person's life that is both traumatic and transformative in nature. Laswell

sees adult educators being in a position to "differentially impact the eventual outcomes of the job loss experience." This potentially pivotal role is similar to the mentoring role discussed by authors such as Laurent Daloz.

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ISSUES PROGRAMMING TRAINING NEEDS OF OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION FACULTY

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ABSTRACT

Focus Group Interviews (FGI) and a mail survey based on the Borich model of needs assessment were used to study attitudes toward issues programming and training needs of the population of Ohio Extension faculty (N=298). Attitude, importance, knowledge, and ability to implement issues programming were studied in relation to: tenure, program area assignment, prior training, prior employment in education, professional role, and academic major of highest degree. Though issues programming was perceived as important, faculty attitude, knowledge and ability to implement were not rated very high. Using Stepwise multiple regression, training and program area assignment had low, positive associations with attitude toward issues programming. Training had a low, positive association with importance, knowledge and ability to implement issues programming. Training needs identified included resource identification, evaluation, and audience identification. Participants in FGIs(n=33) identified several concerns: how disciplines contribute to issues; what motivation and reward exists for interdisciplinary work; how are issues identified; who composes the clientele base within Extension; and how issues programming alters traditional programming. FGIs provided valuable explanation to support the quantitative findings. Additional research is needed to measure knowledge about issues programming and to study effectiveness of in-service training methods dealing with issues programming.

INTRODUCTION

Since 1985, the National Initiatives Coordinating Committee of the Cooperative Extension System has developed and initiated implementation of a framework for program development called issues programming focusing on a proactive, relevant and integrated approach to non-formal education. The underlying purpose in this redirection is to provide relevant research based information to improve people's lives. Issues are defined as matters of wide public concern arising from complex human problems (Dalgaard, et al, 1988). Target audiences for educational programs are identified from extensive needs assessment. The program design, implementation, evaluation and resources may differ based upon the needs of a particular target audience. Issues are addressed in an interdisciplinary manner, using the resources of the disciplines most applicable to the needs. This differs from the program development model traditionally used by Extension professionals which relies on the disciplinary base of agriculture, home economics and natural resources with programs targeted to rural and small town adults, farmers, homemakers, and 4-H club members.

The complexity of organizational change is magnified by the lack of a defined theoretical based in educational administration (Vroom, 1983) and the lack of research concerning Cooperative Extension System administration and leadership (Boone, 1987). Individual practitioners are adoption and change agents whose behavior is a key indicator of the innovation and adoption process (Hall, et al, 1975). The Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM) identifies the concerns, feelings, and perceptions of individuals about an innovation as critical elements of the change process (Hall, 1976). In-service education is considered a significant factor contributing to arousal and resolution of concerns in the CBAM model.

OSU Extension has made an organizational commitment to implement issues programming. Since the issues paradigm is a new focus of the Extension System nationally, little research has been identified concerning training needs of professionals. A systematic approach to managing the change to issues programming might include: provisions for skill development of staff, recognition by administrators that staff will have strong feelings which need to be expressed, support and leadership from the state to change priorities, significant staff development support, and identification of sources of resistance within the organization (Dalgaard, et al, 1988).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to describe Extension faculty perceptions of issues programming and to determine their perceived ability to implement the program development process. The following questions guided the researcher in the study: (1) what are OSU Extension faculty perceptions of attitudes, knowledge, importance, and ability to implement issues programming; (2) do perceptions differ based upon the characteristics of tenure, program area assignment, prior training about issues programming, prior professional experience in education, professional role, and major area of highest degree; (3) what relationships exist among the variables and selected population characteristics; (4) what are the training needs of OSU Extension faculty regarding specific concepts of issues programming; and (5) what sources of information and training about issues programming are currently used by Extension faculty?

METHODOLOGY

The participants included a census of the population of 321 Ohio Extension faculty at the county, district, and state level identified from the most current Extension directory at the time of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this mixed method research study. The purpose of using mixed method research was twofold: (1) to use the findings from qualitative Focus Group Interviews (FGI) to develop a quantitative attitudinal scale and needs assessment instrument and (2) complimentarity, to provide illustration or clarification of the quantitative findings (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989).

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

Focus Group Interview (FGI) groups were used to uncover the diversity of attitudes concerning issues programming and to identify sources of information used by Extension faculty to learn about issues programming. The data collected in the early FGIs were used in the development of the mail survey. Five FGI groups included 33 participants stratified by professional role: state specialists, field faculty including county and district, and district directors. The groups were formed through a process of systematic random sampling and participant availability. The researcher drew a random sample and called each potential participant using a prescribed invitation process. Individuals accepting the invitation for the given date composed the focus group. Counties were grouped for geographical convenience prior to sampling.

The Systematic Notification Process was used to maximize participation of consenting individuals (Krueger, 1985). OSU Extension provided reimbursement of travel expenses for participants. Three individuals trained in FGI procedures served as moderators. The researcher served as assistant moderator to minimize potential bias from verbal and non-verbal cues. Each FGI proceeded for a maximum of 1 hour 15 minutes using a consistent set of five questions. All proceedings were recorded on audio tape using pressure zone microphones and backup notes were maintained in event of recording failure. Prior to participation, the researcher explained that the session was to be recorded and indicated the disposition of the tapes following the session. The audio tapes were destroyed following transcription of the content.

MAIL SURVEY

A mail survey was developed consisting of three parts: an attitudinal scale using a 5 point Likert-type scale, a needs assessment scale, and demographic questions. Participant ratings were summated and averaged to determine an individual attitudinal rating. Findings were reported as mean attitudinal ratings ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The needs assessment scale was based upon a model developed by Borich (1980). Individuals ranked perceived knowledge, importance and ability to implement specific competencies using a 5 point Likert-type scale. Ratings ranges from 1 (low) to 5 (high). Discrepancy scores were calculated for both the knowledge and ability to implement scales and ranked using statistical means to weigh relative importance of values assigned to survey responses. The ranking was used to identify priority training needs. Discrepancy scores were calculated for 6 competencies: issues identification, audience identification, resource identification, program delivery methods, organization of issues programming and evaluation of issues programming. Respondents also provided information concerning program area assignment, gender, tenure in Extension, years professional experiences in other educational roles, major area of highest degree attained and the number and source of training used concerning issues programming.

Measurement error was a key threat to internal validity of this study. Content validity of the instruments was assessed by a panel of experts. The FGI questions and mail survey were reviewed by four Extension leaders from across the United States. The mail survey was pilot tested with an accessible group of 21 Extension professionals who were not part of the population to be studies to establish clarity and suitability. Cronbach's Alpha model was used to determine internal consistency coefficients for both the attitudinal and training needs scales. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the attitudinal scale was .89 after deletion of two items negatively correlated with attitude. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the 6 subscales of the needs assessment section ranged from a low of .10 to a high of .87. As a result, two items were deleted and three subscales revised for inclusion in the final instrument to meet the criteria established by Nunnally (1967).

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The survey was sent to the population of three hundred twenty-six faculty members with a final response of 91.4% (N=298). Extension mail packets were used to save postage. A cover letter co-signed by the Director and Associate Director of OSU Extension supported participation in the study. A small notepad served as an incentive to increase response rate (Berdie, Anderson, et al, 1986). Surveys were coded with the date of return for analysis of early and late respondents as recommend by Miller and Smith (1983). Two reminder letters were mailed to encourage response. Two hundred and eighty-nine (88.6%) were considered usable responses. Cross tabulation and Chi Square analyses comparing early and late respondents for each of the independent variables found all variables to be independent.

FGI data were transcribed masking the identity of individual participants. The transcribed data were reduced and sorted using the computer software ETHNOGRAPH. Relevant quotes were reported without identification of the respondent. Interpretation, judgments and recommendations were reported in narrative and list form.

Quantitative data were coded onto floppy disk and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx) computer program. Frequencies, percent and measures of central tendency described characteristics of faculty perceived attitudes, importance, knowledge, and ability to implement issues programming. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to examine variance of collective and separate contribution of the independent variables.

FINDINGS

The majority of the participants (62%) were male, with Agriculture (43%) as program area assignment. Approximately 60% of the females held positions in Home Economics. Seventy-five percent of the respondents were field faculty, the majority of whom were county agents. The mean tenure in Extension of the respondents was 11.70 years. Fifty-two percent of the group had prior employment in an educational field for an average of 3.11 years. A high percentage (43%) of the respondents hold their highest degree in education.

The mean attitude rating of 3.40 can best be described as neutral or undecided. Attitude ratings were The overall mean importance rating for the population was 3.92 or moderately high. Faculty rated perceived knowledge about issues programming (3.32) and ability to implement issues programming (3.25) as moderate. Faculty holding an agriculture program area assignment and faculty serving as state specialists consistently rated attitude, importance, knowledge and ability to implement issues programming below the mean. District directors consistently rated each of these variables above the mean.

Faculty attitude, knowledge, importance, and ability to implement issues programming were examined in relation to six characteristics variables: tenure, program area assignment, prior training, prior employment in an educational field, professional role, and academic major of highest degree attained. Using Stepwise multiple regression, training (r=.20) and program area assignment (r=.15) were found to have low, positive associations with attitude toward issues programming. The other characteristic variables were not included in the equation. Approximately 16% of the variance is accounted for by these two variables.

Training was also found to have a low, positive association with importance (r=.25), knowledge (r=.33) and ability to implement issues programming(r=.26). Training accounted for approximately 33% of the variance of knowledge, 26% of the variance of ability to implement and 25% of the variance of importance. Training may serve as a predictor of attitude, importance, knowledge and ability to implement issues programming with this population.

Discrepancy scores were calculated for knowledge and ability to implement issues programming for each of six subscales composing the needs assessment instrument. High discrepancy scores indicated the following three areas as high priority for training: resource identification, evaluation of issues programming and audience identification. Within each of these areas, specific competencies emerged as high priorities for training. The competencies were the same for both the knowledge and ability to implement issues programming scales in all subscales except audience identification.

Respondents were asked to check all sources of training they had utilized to learn about issues programming. Eight sources were listed as well as one labeled "other". The mean number of sources of training concerning issues programming used by the participants was 2.68 of a possible nine sources. the four most frequently used sources of training among all faculty were district in-service (f=155), reading US Department of Agriculture (USDA) publications (f=116), national professional association meetings (f=113) and viewing the USDA videotape "Investing in America's Future" (f=99). Though district in-service was the most frequently cited source of training, only slightly more than half of the respondents used this method. The sources listed most frequently by field faculty can be described as including dialogue, while those used by state specialists focused upon independent thinking and analysis.

In addition to providing input for development of quantitative instrumentation, the FGIs provided valuable explanation to support the quantitative findings. Though participants described many characteristics of issues programming, two components were not clearly recognized: the controversial nature of issues and the public policy component of issues programming. In addition, participants equated problems and issues.

Participants raised many concerns about issues programming. Advantages and disadvantages were not clearly discernible; many concerns that were identified as advantages were also identified as disadvantages. For example, participants expressed concern that real or artificial barriers exist with disciplinary specialization that hamper adoption of issues programming. Yet others perceived specialization as an asset when multiple disciplines are applied in an interdisciplinary manner to an issue. Other examples included: whether the promotion and tenure system provides motivation and reward for interdisciplinary teamwork; how issues are identified; who composes the clientele base within the organizational mission; and whether issues programming supplements or replaces traditional programming.

When asked to describe how issues programming differed from the way individuals currently developed programs, four areas surfaced: effects upon personnel, issues identification process, political impacts of issues programming and impact upon clientele. Some personnel perceived issues programming as a new risk and challenges , where others described it as "arm twisting" to make people work together in a university system. It is perceived that there is inconsistent information about the goals and expectations of issues programming, both within Extension and externally with clientele and the political arena. The consensus appeared to be that issues should be determined locally rather than at a state or federal level to insure local relevance of programming. Some concern was expressed that issues programming is "Politically driven from USDA". Extension professionals tended to assume that local political priorities were in conflict with national priorities, thus the issues programming focus would make it more difficult to obtain local funding.

Participants frequently expressed that issues programming would generate new clientele while alienating traditional clientele groups, assuming that existing clientele would not be interested in issues programming. Some participants indicated they already do more than 50% issues programming, where others indicated that "attitude adjustments must take place within the ranks of Extension first". Several questions were raised about strategies for implementation and evaluation of issues.

CONCLUSIONS

This research has implications for those who administer issues programming for OSU Extension as well as for those who develop in-service education programs. The findings suggest that future training efforts be focused in the competency areas of evaluation, resource identification and audience identification. If issues programming is to become a major focus for planning and implementation OSU Extension programs, then administrators need to consider the neutral attitude of faculty. Questions must be addressed concerning credit for interdisciplinary efforts in the promotion and tenure system, how subject matter specialization interfaces with issues programming, how issues are identified and by whom, how priority clientele groups are identified, and how issues programs relate to traditional programs. Training may also be needed to emphasize the public policy focus and controversial nature of issues. Administrators may also need to consider that among present faculty, the majority are agriculturally oriented and perceive issues programming less favorably than other faculty. If the organizational emphasis is to shift toward issues programming these faculty may need to be a target audience for training. As new personnel are hired, attention may need to be given to recruitment of individuals with background in public policy, political science or social sciences. Specialists may also be a target group for training to emphasize how disciplinary specialization can contribute to issues programming. Since state specialists tended to used more independent means of training, perhaps opportunities to foster dialogue are needed. To foster an interdisciplinary focus, networks of specialists across disciplines need to be organized.

Based upon the findings of this study, the researcher recommends several possibilities for future research: (1) this study be conducted with Extension professionals in other states;(2)this study be repeated with samples of OSU Extension faculty after additional training has been provided in identified areas; (3) a study be conducted using both cognitive measure of knowledge and perceived knowledge using discrepancy scores to confirm the accuracy of discrepancy scores with this population; (4) the attitudinal section of the instrument be re-administered over time to measure change of faculty attitude toward issues programming; and (5) a longitudinal study be developed to examine the degree to which issues programming is implemented by Extension faculty.

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UP FROM THE ASHES: ADULT LEARNING IN THE AFTERMATH OF JOB LOSS

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ABSTRACT

The occurrence of job loss has taken on overwhelming proportions in the '90s, and presents new challenges for trainers and adult educators in Human Resource Development (HRD) and other adult learning environments. Utilizing the paradigm of naturalistic inquiry, this study interprets the experience of job loss and provides insight into adult learning as a potentially central component of the job loss experience. Findings indicate that job loss is an extraordinary event in a person's life, an interruption that is both traumatic and transformative in nature. Resulting experiences of incidental learning are characterized by fragmentation, alienation, and the emergence of new perspectives, and include redefining personal relationships, examination of personal values, and reflection on the foundations of self-worth and personal image. The need to effectively cope and to "make sense of what has happened" drives individuals to engage in formal and/or informal learning activities. The HRD and adult education practitioner can impact the eventual outcomes of the job loss experience, and are in an excellent position to help these learners renew self-worth and trust, and to achieve growth through personal exploration and new perspectives.

INTRODUCTION

The occurrence of involuntary job loss has become one of today's realities as one-job-one-company careers become increasingly rare: companies can no longer afford to retain the marginal employee; re-training is not always a viable option; and overwhelming numbers of people are being caught in the inferno of repercussions created by company mergers, acquisitions, and downsizings. Within HRD departments, the process is generally viewed as "over" once the exit interview is complete, severance arranged, and the desk cleaned out. For the person undergoing the job loss, however, the discharge is the beginning of a complex, dynamic, and extraordinary learning experience.

As a life event, job loss frequently leaves a person confused and devastated, with little effective means to cope with the experience (Winegardner, et al, 1988; Kieselbach & Lunser, 1990). The disciplines of psychology and sociology have devoted considerable attention to the impact of job loss. Overall findings link unemployment with an array of psychological and physiological disorders including depression, chemical dependency, psychosomatic illness, family abuse, and suicide (Kieselbach & Lunser, 1990; Steinweg, 1990). The social and economic ramifications are staggering, particularly when viewed from a context of indirect effect where the consequences of job loss have been estimated to reach roughly 20% of the U.S. population--50 million people (Steinweg, 1990). Unemployment literature also reveals potentially positive aspects of job loss: opportunities to re-evaluate goals, to change life direction, and to stimulate personal and/or professional growth (Crystal & Bolles, 1974; DeRouche & McDougall, 1984).

Rarely, however, has job loss been viewed from the perspective of adult learning. Working with the unemployed is no longer the sole dominion of unemployment counselors and special agencies. In their study of life transitions, Aslanian and Brickell (1980) found that adults in job loss transition have an extremely high rate of participation in learning activities. This presents new challenges for the adult educator as people turn to learning activities as a means to ease transitions, gain new knowledge, and to re-evaluate life/career choices. In light of these circumstances it is critical that adult educators understand the complex nature of job loss, the experiences of incidental learning, and the growing need to effectively facilitate formal and informal learning experiences for this rapidly expanding population. The potentially transformative nature of the job loss experience carries profound implications for adult educators and trainers, and presents a vision of an emerging role for those involved in working with people who have experienced job loss.

THE RESEARCH INQUIRY

Given the increasing incidence of job loss, the impact of the indirect consequences both socially and economically, and the fact that adults turn increasingly to a wide range of learning activities as a way to cope with and make meaning of their experiences, there is a strong need to more fully understand the nature of the job loss experience for workers and educators alike. This inquiry sought, through qualitative means, to investigate the nature of job loss and the experiences of learning within this context. The primary purposes of this study were twofold: 1) to describe, chronicle and interpret the experience of job loss, and 2) to gain insight into adult learning as a potentially central component of the job loss experience.

A case study was undertaken utilizing the paradigm of naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Six individuals participated, coming from communication, manufacturing, agricultural, health and educational industries. The qualitative methods used were emergent in nature and study implementation was built upon the successive development of purposive sampling, inductive analysis, and projection of next steps. Data were collected through multiple observations of a job loss support group, open-ended interviews, follow-up interviews, unobtrusive clues, and the use of secondary sources. Study participants reflected the following characteristics: an even division of people discharged for performance-related reasons and those who had been discharged as a result of circumstances beyond their control (e.g. company closing); 25 to 55 years of age; current job status of unemployed, "survival" employment, and satisfying employment; discharge position tenure from 6 months to 20 years; extremely low and extremely high levels of satisfaction gained from their discharge positions; and time period from discharge to date of study interviews ranging from approximately three months to eleven years.

Due to the potentially sensitive nature of disclosures, data collected from interviews and observations were recorded in field notes. Immediately following interviews and observations, the field notes were filled out and underwent an initial memoing and coding process followed by content analysis. Member checks were conducted with all participants, and the final research outcomes came about as the result of negotiation with participants, inter-coder agreement, and peer reviews. To ensure trustworthiness and dependability, an audit trail was maintained that included memos and journal entries, data reconstruction and syntheses products, and methodological notes.

FINDINGS

Regardless of their specific discharge contexts, respondents described their experiences in terms of their actions, emotional "stages," ways of changing, coping activities, and concurrent life events, and recounted their experiences in a loose chronology: what they experienced immediately following the discharge announcement, how they viewed their overall experience at the time of our interview, and their experiences and responses in between these two points.

Findings revealed that the nature of job loss and the resulting experiences of incidental learning are characterized by fragmentation, a sense of alienation, and the emergence of new perspectives. The experience was described as an "interruption" that was both traumatic and transformative in nature and characterized by periods of extreme emotional turmoil, unanticipated change, and internal conflict concerning roles, perceptions of self, and relationships with others. For some, the job loss precipitated divorce, a restructuring of social relationships, or a redefining of financial goals. For others there were increased thoughts of morbidity or suicide. Of greatest impact, however, were the emotional ramifications. One respondent describes his experience in a way which the others echoed:

> "It really is a lot like death, yet it's not quite the same. I have flashes. Anger hits, then backs off. Stages seem to run together, overlap. It's scary. Self-confidence-shaking. I'm anger-driven, bitter. It's also embarrassing. And frustrating. There's self-pity and depression. I have a sense that something has happened to me, but I'm not real clear on exactly what has changed."

"Up's and down's" characterized the days, weeks, or months following the discharge, accompanied by a sometimes daily struggle to remain active rather than reactive or withdrawn. For some, this was evidenced by a significant increase in sleep, in the amounts of alcohol consumed, or "a new need to make 'to do' lists, just to show myself there really was something to get up for each day." For one respondent,

> I had to fight, every day, to get past the depression. I had a real sense of worthlessness. I had to force myself to make calls. I painted the house. There was a lot of frantic activity that I think was to make up for not working. And it helped me avoid meeting and talking with people.

Regardless of the circumstances surrounding the discharge, respondents noted an increased hesitancy in decision-making, greater uncertainty in their actions, and a corresponding questioning of themselves and frequently their families and friends as well.

> I had so much self-doubt. During the announcement, I learned that the others had known all week what was coming, and hadn't told me or acted any differently. For a while afterwards, maybe even a little today, I had a hard time trusting people. I had a sense of some hidden agenda behind what they were saying to me.

Respondents chronicled an indeterminate period of critical self-reflection where life direction was "reassessed," where old roles and self-images were shed and a new "sense of place" in the world was perceived. One respondent recounted,

> One day I saw a group of people outside the unemployment office. My first thought was, if they really wanted a job they'd get one. I'm afraid I've always been a little self-righteous, especially when it came to people on welfare. Then it hit me: that's me standing there! Somehow, that changed the whole way I viewed both myself and others. I think I have more empathy now. It's easier for me to see other people's perspectives.

For all respondents, there was ultimately "a turning point," "a release," or "sense of relief that I was being propelled to take action that I hadn't been able to take before." With this came a reaffirmation or renewal of their sense of self that occurred apart from their acceptance of a new position. For some this came quickly, for others more slowly. "Support" was named as a critical element of this development and came through a variety of channels: family members, close friends, professionals, and the respondents' own spiritual/personal belief systems. Regardless of its source, support appears to have been a central basis for growth.

The job loss experience continued to impact respondents even long after a new and satisfying career position had been obtained. Respondents describing themselves as "happy and content" in a new position also described an underriding fear of the job loss occurring again and a general lack of security. Though all respondents described significant growth, positive changes they had made in themselves or their life situation, stronger relationships and increased self-knowledge that they associated with the experience of job loss, they also described episodes or "flashbacks" of anger or depression, self-doubt and lack of trust even several years after their discharge. The memory of the depth of emotion experienced in the aftermath of the job loss also remains: "Even after eleven years, now, when I think back on that time, I can feel the numbness. It all comes right back and it's like I'm right there again."

In spite of the turmoil, anxiety, and uncertainty, without exception the job loss was perceived as a "real learning experience," a time of growth, exploration, and decision-making. Participants focused their descriptions on incidental learning experiences and the impact this learning has had on their lives since their discharge, often described as "I wouldn't know what I do today, if that hadn't happened." Such learning includes the redefining of personal relationships, examination of personal values, reflection on the foundations of self-worth and personal image, and the exploration of dreams, goals, and interests.

Each respondent also engaged in formal and/or informal learning activities including self-directed learning, job search education and support groups, retraining as the result of a "survival" job, a return to higher education, and participation in job loss/career counseling. Though practical reasons were included (e.g. to "sharpen" job search skills) the primary reason given for such engagement was to "help me cope" and "help me make sense of what has happened." For each respondent, however, the learning experience was hampered by periods of depression, withdrawal and isolation, self-pity, anger, and a desire to "lick my wounds." Feelings of self-doubt, diminished self-worth, and sense of betrayal were identified as having the greatest impact on their ability to take effective action.

DISCUSSION

In what ways does an awareness of the nature of the job loss experience help us to understand adult learning and, more specifically, what is our role as adult educators in this process? Laurent Daloz, in *Effective Teaching and Mentoring* (1990), presents participation in learning experiences as a means to "help . . . make sense of lives whose fabric of meaning has grown frayed." (pg. 1) This is an especially appropriate description for learning in the context of job loss. The learning component of job loss can be characterized as both incidental and organized, both instrumental and transformative in nature. In effect, learning occurs at times without conscious intention, at other times within a very planned, more structured context, and may be both task-related and practical, or characterized by insights and self-knowledge gained through self-reflection (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991). Evidence strongly suggests that engagement in learning activity is not so much for purposes of gaining practical knowledge, skills, or attitudes, but the deeper belief that it will, in some way, help to reframe and give new meaning to their experience. The sense of "a turning point" or "release" described by study respondents may depict a moment when change has not only occurred but has consciously, profoundly, and with new understanding occurred as a result of learning processes, either organized or incidental.

To what extent is this experience of learning within the context of job loss transformative? Viewed from this perspective, the conflict, turmoil, and emotionality involved in the struggle to reconstruct life experiences is revealed with new clarity. The "stages" identified by respondents can be seen as a transformative journey. As Daloz (1990) so vividly conveys, from whatever point an individual begins the journey of change and development he or she will surely plunge into frightening and unknown depths before emerging with new knowledge and understanding. As was the case with study respondents, instrumental learning need (for instance, in the form of job search skills or retraining) may in part provide the drive necessary for engagement and continuation in organized learning activity. However, this was not a significant aspect of the job loss experience and accompanying development, nor was it identified as a significant component of the dynamics experienced by respondents. Rather, it was the fact that in some way -- reflected in new foundations of self-image, perhaps, or the reframing of relationships -- meaning has profoundly changed.

Mezirow's notion of perspective transformation (1991) incorporates a reformulation of basic cultural assumptions to create a more inclusive and discriminating perspective, and of in some way acting upon the new understandings. Similar to what Daloz has described, the transformational journey begins with a "disorienting dilemma" which is ineffectively met with a person's old patterns and that results in critical examination of self and an assessment of assumptions and beliefs. For this study's participants, the disorienting dilemma took the form of the job loss, to which their old patterns of belief and action provided only continued disorientation and negative consequences. New, more discriminating and integrative perspectives were necessary to reach a "turning point," and learning became transformative in nature, achieved through incidental and organized learning activities.

Clearly, the high incidence of involvement in formal learning activity following job loss, and the fact that transformative learning is occurring within this context carries significant implications for the adult educator working to improve the quality of the learning experience. There is a growing awareness of the need to work with the "whole person" in learning situations and, with this, an emerging reflection and emphasis on our own role in the growth and development of the learner. Adult educators are challenged with how best to channel the energy and emotionality of the job loss in ways which result in successful learning experiences. We must continue to individually and collectively reflect on what it is we have to offer the adult learner: knowledge, certainly, but also the ability to guide reflection, stimulate personal insight, and perhaps provide evidence that the learner will not only survive the journey but come to embrace its adventures wholeheartedly.

We are called to provide an intuitive mix of support, challenge, and vision for the adult learner. The learner's strong need to "make meaning" of their experiences, and to give practical application to the experience and create new direction to his or her life, suggests the importance of making learning immediately relevant while building on past experiences, and establishing an environment of safety where learners may feel free to explore and express their struggles and insights. To assist in the construction of new meaning and direction, our efforts must include the active engagement of the learner, encouragement of critical reflection, and the exploration of alternative ways of thinking. Because of the fragmentary and alienating nature of job loss, there is an increased need to bring a sense of cohesiveness to the learning experience. Our supportive function takes on critical importance as well: listening, providing necessary structure, mutual sharing, and the clear expression of the value of the learner. Such a mentoring role suggests an emphasis on the building of trust, creating opportunities for positive interaction among learners and educators, and the encouragement of flexibility and adaptability.

This study reveals that job loss is itself a learning experience comprised of dynamic psycho-social interrelationships. With it comes the potential for substantial, transformative change in the lives of the participants. The nature and characteristics of the learning experiences within this context appear to have a profound impact on the individual learner, influencing a person long after movement to a new life situation has been made. Although job loss is viewed by most as a negative and undesirable experience, certain aspects appear to contribute to significant growth and transformation. Adult educators can differentially impact the eventual outcomes of the job loss experience and assist these learners in their struggle to renew a sense of self-worth and achieve new meaning and understanding to their lives. Regardless of our unique learning settings, adult educators are well-positioned to help learners "rise up from the ashes" of job loss by themselves recognizing and embracing the transformational power of the life experience.

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INVOLVING WORKERS IN WORKPLACE LITERACY

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ABSTRACT

Common approaches to workplace literacy program development are examined for their congruence with good adult education practice. Because the existing body of research on workplace literacy supports a narrow interpretation of the job context approach, three new approaches that are more participatory in nature are proposed: the DELTA process, a refinement to the conventional literacy audit process; learner generated curriculum; and workplace literacy in learning organizations. Research on each of these approaches is suggested using a method that links theory and practice by connecting knowledge from both the practice and research communities.

INTRODUCTION

The extent to which workplace literacy programs reflect good adult education practice is the subject of increasing debate. At the heart of the controversy are questions about the participatory nature of workplace literacy education: in what ways are workers involved in planning and implementing workplace literacy programs? Because involving learners in significant ways in planning and implementing their learning experiences is a fundamental tenet of adult education, many see the answer to this question as the basis on which to evaluate the extent to which workplace literacy programs exhibit the desired characteristics of adult education.

Unfortunately, research evidence supporting participatory workplace literacy programs is scarce. This paper explores the need for research that will document the effectiveness of participatory approaches in workplace literacy, thus providing a rationale for aligning it more closely with good adult education practice. It begins by examining conventional approaches to workplace literacy program development, highlighting the dilemmas posed by them. Next, some new approaches and possible research options are described. Finally, some ways of more closely joining theory building and practice are proposed.

COMMON APPROACHES TO WORKPLACE LITERACY PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The functional context approach with a focus on analyzing the gaps between a workplace's literacy requirements and the abilities of its work force has been widely accepted as the appropriate foundation for workplace literacy programs. Recently, however, critics have questioned its use because of its failure to involve the worker (see, for example, Gowen, 1992).

In programs adhering to a narrow interpretation of the job context approach, a curriculum is developed to fill in the gaps, usually through a top-down process with decisions made primarily by company management, human resources development specialists, and higher-level educational experts. Now, some experts are calling for a different interpretation of contextualized learning, one that is more participatory in nature and that supports the move toward high performance organizations. Those advocating this alternative interpretation argue that such an approach ensures greater relevance for and buy-in by all stakeholders, while reinforcing the critical thinking and teamwork required to transform workplaces into high-performance, continuous improvement organizations (Jurmo, 1992). Because it is participatory in nature, it also has the potential for involving workers in meaningful ways in both identifying and developing methods of meeting their own learning needs.

Attention to context is an important adult education principle, and, consequently, adult educators understand the importance of tying workplace literacy programs in meaningful ways to the learners' environment. Yet those who are philosophically aligned with emerging interpretations of contextualized learning are in a bind because the existing body of research supports a relatively narrow interpretation of job context. According to the director of a project funded by the National Workplace Literacy Program,

> The rigid view of job-specific curriculum development held by many leaders in workplace literacy is dangerous. Job-specific curriculum development makes sense because it utilizes the concept of integrating prior knowledge into instructional design. The danger, however, lies in the belief that it is the only way to develop good curriculum. This rigid view is based on a small amount of research conducted by a few people who have done adequate research, but with a very, very narrow focus. The need for funding more research in what works in workplace literacy is crucial. (Evaluation Research, 1992, Appendix A, n.p.)

Building on learners' previous knowledge and experience as the basis for giving meaning to new learning is another adult education principle that is inherent in a participatory approach. It, too, is generating conflict in workplace literacy. Although work may be the major activity for many adults, it is not the only meaningful event that occurs in their lives. Ignoring other aspects of learners lives may be detrimental, especially if their most valued knowledge and experience reside in these non-work arenas (Kalman and Fraser, 1992).

In a study of small businesses, Hollenbeck (forthcoming) found that because instructors often tailored instruction to the needs and interests of the learners, reference to the workplace was frequently limited. While this approach may be consistent with adult education practice and ensure instructional topics of interest to the learners, it ignores the fact that employers are supporting workplace literacy to improve workers' productivity. Further, this approach might fail to capitalize on the fact that these learners have a context they share.

Again, those advocating greater involvement of learners in generating workplace literacy curriculum are confronted with a dilemma. Because the existing body of research has shown that productivity gains tend to be greatest from programs that instill job-specific material in the curriculum, it may be interpreted as failing to support a curriculum that addresses learners' needs and interests that are outside of the workplace (Hollenbeck, forthcoming).

Research that supports a broader interpretation of job context is needed. Also, few proven strategies exist for involving small groups of workers in meaningful ways in identifying and addressing their learning needs. Methods of contextualizing learning that involve the workers/learners need to be developed and tested through research. The next section of the paper presents three promising approaches for developing more participatory workplace literacy practices.

PROMISING APPROACHES FOR PARTICIPATORY PRACTICES: IDENTIFYING WORKPLACE LITERACY NEEDS

A major first step of most job-context workplace literacy programs is identification of the specific basic skills used to perform particular job tasks as well as identification of the nature and extent of employees' basic skills relative to the requirements of a particular job. This process is termed a literacy audit. Once the gap has been measured between what is and what is needed, the literacy audit is the foundation for designing a workplace literacy program.

The conventional procedure for a literacy audit is to 1) observe employees on the job to determine the basic skills they use, 2) analyze job-related reading and written materials to determine the levels of basic skills required, 3) interview employees and their supervisors to determine their perception of the basic skills required; and 4) determine whether the employees have the required basic skills by administering some selected adult basic education test (U.S. Departments of Labor and Education, 1988). These steps are helpful for establishing the context, but they may also have some drawbacks that could be eliminated: 1) observation and testing of employees may raise their anxieties, 2) employees participate only individually in interviews and are otherwise passive, 3) the resulting information may be too global to provide the detail that an adequate foundation for a job-context program requires, 4) the information may not be focused toward literacy used for the key outcomes of decisions and problem solutions, ever more needed by workers, and 5) they may not be as cost effective as alternative approaches.

To meet these needs, the Center on Education and Training for Employment developed the DELTA process, meaning DACUM Enhanced Literacy Task Analysis. DELTA is a refinement to the conventional literacy audit process based largely on a modification of a highly effective DACUM Developing curriculum process. DACUM involves a carefully selected group of eight to twelve employees from a job classification working under the guidance of a trained facilitator to elicit the collective expertise and consensus of the committee through small-group brainstorming techniques. This highly participatory process also allows for inclusion of projections of future need, an important aspect in an era of rapid change. The committee spends several days reviewing the job systematically to identify the specific tasks performed, along with implications for the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to perform them. Then the analysis is extended to identification of the literacy skills (including reading, writing, speaking, listening, and computation) needed for each task as well as the nature of the problem solving and decision making required. The outcome is a profile chart giving a detailed portrayal of the job.

Other valued outcomes, evidenced by worker comments on the process, are heightened participants' awareness of the importance of their job and a sense of reinforcement of what they know about it. The fact that a program is to be designed based on what they say they want and need to do the job better and to respond to the demands of a dynamic workplace gives them an immediate feeling of ownership.

The contents of the chart are validated by asking still other workers to review the chart. They are also asked to give input about the importance of particular tasks now and in the future and about where they or others are experiencing problems. The chart is further refined by observation of the workers performing tasks identified as targets for training and by discussions with them to elicit detail.

The essence of such a process is that assistance is offered to facilitate the needs identification, but that the workers' ability to reflect on their own situation is validated. Informal evidence is that this contributes to building an atmosphere conducive to enthusiastic participation in the resulting program. Such a hypothesis needs to be tested.

LEARNER-GENERATED CURRICULUM

Another potential method for involving workers in meaningful ways in workplace literacy is through learner-generated curriculum or training materials. This is a natural next step from the needs identified through the DELTA process. Workers can, with the help of a facilitator, develop scenarios or mini-simulations that make real the job context in which these needs arise. The teacher/facilitator's role is to help the learners visualize situations, reflect on them, and determine through their own initiative and with their own job materials, how to learn from them and how to seek resources and assistance to do so. With this type of teaching strategy, the teacher elicits learning through probing questions. The teacher guides the process, but allows the content to evolve from the learners themselves, which may well demand more subtlety and skill on the teacher's part than traditional modes of instruction.

Although this process curriculum can be accomplished individually, the experience is rich in learning potential for small groups who can analyze all aspects of the task in a brainstorming mode, assign any research or writing activities, and, in the process, can themselves build all the literacy skills that the materials will foster for others. The group can decide the best form for the materials to take. If written materials are drafted, the exchange and review process to refine them is, in itself, a learning activity. For example, it if is decided that a step-by-step procedural task guide would be helpful for a particular task that is new or problematic, the group can think through together what the steps are that should be included. They might assign the writing up of directions for each step to a member of the team and talk together about where to find answers to any questions they have. When all steps have been written up, they can edit the whole individually or together, perhaps asking another group to perform the task by following the directions as a pilot test. The facilitator might be asked not to "grade the paper," but to join the discussion and offer suggestions drawing in resources as necessary and asking questions designed to promote critical thinking.

A learning-generated curriculum incorporates the widely accepted but not-as-widely applied teaching-learning principles derived from the findings of cognitive science, the basis for educational reform for learners of all ages. In addition to being participatory for the learners, it provides for learner initiative and choice about what "needs" to be learned and how it should be best approached. It builds on prior knowledge, provides context, nurtures creativity and collaboration, and helps learners learn to learn. This approach must be thoroughly evaluated as it begins to be used for workplace literacy programs, so that findings can be scrutinized and reapplied to improve practice in what has been relatively uncharted territory.

THE LEARNING ORGANIZATION

The commitment to and synergy from participation in team effort builds directly into the much-talked-about concept written about cogently by Peter Senge in **The Fifth Discipline**, as follows:

> From a very early age, we are taught to break apart problems, to fragment the world. This apparently makes complex tasks and subjects more manageable, but we pay a hidden, enormous price. We can no longer see the consequences of our actions; we lose our intrinsic sense of connection to a larger whole. When we then try to "see the big picture," we try to reassemble the fragments in our minds, to list and organize all the pieces. But, as physicist David Bohm says, the task is futile--similar to trying to reassemble the fragments of a broken mirror to see a true reflection. Thus, after a while we give up trying to see the whole altogether.
>
> The tools and ideas presented in this book are for destroying the illusion that the world is created of separate, unrelated forces. When we give up this illusion--we can then build "learning organizations," organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together. . . . The organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at *all* levels in an organization. . . . Learning organizations are possible because, deep down, we are all learners. . . . The team that became great didn't start off great--it *learned* how to produce extraordinary results. (pp. 3-4)

According to Imel and Kerka (1992), workplace literacy as a facet of a learning organization or high performance workplace is beginning to emerge in the literature. The movement toward participatory workplace literacy programs is closely associated with new organizational structures as exemplified by high performance organizations. Stein (1991) and Sarmiento (1991) describe how workplace literacy programs in a high performance workplace differ from those in more traditional organizations.

As learners in a workplace literacy program team to address how they can learn collaboratively in the context of tasks for which they share an understanding, skills, and a responsibility and as they are encouraged to select the goals they want to reach and the problems they are interested in solving, the potential positive implications for an entire organization loom large. If the goals they select are of significance to the organization, the door is opened to integration of people from different functional areas and from different levels in the organization, which are characteristics of learning organizations.

The thought is that if people in organizations can be teamed together around a common goal, given support systems, tools, and the information they need--or at least some clues about where to find what they are not given, and set loose to achieve the goal, they are more likely to pool their expertise creatively and figure out how to "get there." Further, they are likely to have a significant learning experience in the process. Thinking a situation through, organizing to deal with it, and carrying out what is decided cooperatively are core skills needed for the workplace today and tomorrow. Researchers have an opportunity to move practice forward by documenting the results of workplace literacy situated in learning organizations/high performance workplaces.

LINKING THEORY AND PRACTICE

The need for stronger basic skills in the workforce has been well documented but many of those attempting to address the need have done so relatively unsuccessfully. One reason, certainly, is that although a high degree of awareness of the needs has resulted in a number of workplace literacy programs, this is clearly not the kind of need that is amenable to quick-fix solutions. Workplace literacy is an area that demands a stronger relationship between theory and practice. Sound worker-centered models based on both theory and reflections on practice need to be developed. Then these need to be thoroughly tested to provide information about what is likely to work in which situation for whom.

The expansion of workplace literacy programs provides an ideal environment for additional research. Traditional approaches to research, with associated research designs, are unlikely to work, however. For example, obtaining a control group for use in evaluating projects has proven to be problematic. What is needed is research that emerges from questions generated by an overlap of the practice and research communities. Through their everyday activities, practitioners produce knowledge. Sometimes known as craft knowledge, practitioner knowledge includes innovative practices that arise spontaneously as part of an activity, as well as the tacit knowledge practitioners possess about their work. This is distinct from scientific knowledge produced by researchers and evaluators through formally structured inquiries (Klein, 1992). Frequently shared through modeling and informal communication networks (e.g., conversations), craft knowledge, often forms the basis for new learning that guides practice.

Unfortunately, depending too heavily on craft knowledge prevents practitioners (and the field) from moving forward. One reason is that often the multiple demands on the time of practitioners "in the trenches" do not favor a situation conducive to reflective thinking about practice. Others are needed to trigger the reflection and to gather and analyze the information. At the same time, those engaged in developing scientific knowledge have not recognized that craft knowledge frequently represents significant insights and valuable ideas. To improve the knowledge base, stronger links must be created between the craft knowledge being produced by workplace literacy practitioners and scientific knowledge generated by researchers and evaluators. The intersection of these two knowledge areas can result in explanations that will serve to improve both craft and scientific knowledge about workplace literacy.

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Literacy

LITERACY

The National Literacy Act of 1991 provided for adults to have equity and access to Adult Basic Education programs supported by federal, state, and local resources. ABE programs began in communities all around the United States. Yet, many ABE programs experience high student drop-out rates and high instructor turnover rates. The reasons for this flux in personnel, and in students attending ABE programs are as varied as the types of providers and the kinds of students.

Adult literacy providers can be housed in public schools, community colleges, universities, community outreach settings, libraries, and in business and industry. Program responsibilities are carried out by a wide range of individuals. ABE directors and teachers range from former elementary school teachers, volunteers, and former ABE students, to Phd's in adult literacy education. Preparation for ABE personnel is often limited; some teachers receive only minimal on-the-job training and have no choice but to operate in a "fly by the seat of your pants" tradition.

Adult literacy students come from diverse social and ethnic backgrounds and varied communities. ABE classes are comprised of adults who are learning disabled; some are high school drop-outs. Some are even high school graduates. These students also have varying educational goals. Adults may be required to attend ABE because they are in JOBS programs, or they may be ESL learners who have recently immigrated to the United States and want to learn English. Or, they may attend ABE because they want to be able to read the Bible or help their children or grandchildren with homework.

The research studies reported on in this conference proceedings relate to the issues of differences in preparation and experience of ABE teachers and the diversity of students enrolled in ABE programs. While educators *speak* of valuing the diversity, their classroom practices should reflect their understanding of diversity as is manifest in the cultural heritage, interests, personal goals, and prior knowledge of the students they serve.

Courtney, Jha, and Babchuk's "Life in the Classroom" looks at the experience of teachers and learners in ABE settings. They found that for some, ABE resembled school, and for others, the environment was confusing and unfamiliar. Their study can sensitize practitioners to the needs and perceptions of their adult students.

Dirkx and Fonfara's study, "'Doing Something to Help': Theories and Beliefs of Instructional Volunteers in Adult Basic Education" deals with the implicit theories, beliefs, and values individual teachers use to guide classroom behaviors. The authors believe that by making these theories explicit, we can understand why volunteers behave as they do in the classroom. This information then can inform how volunteers are oriented and prepared for their classroom practices.

The Fisher study, "Dropout and Return: The Experience of School as Articulated by Older Adult Basic Education Students" discusses older adult students and their perceptions of the experiences they have had with schooling in their earlier lives, and now as participants in ABE. They found, as have other researchers, that adults in ABE often had to drop out of school because of family obligations, not necessarily because they hated or feared school. The authors concluded that older adults have unique literacy needs which should be addressed by educators.

Freer and Enoch report on their research study which examined the Small Group Teacher Training model in order to identify strengths and weaknesses in implementing such a model. Their pilot study found that either further research was needed on the SGTT model, or that a new model should be developed. The SGTT model was too complicated and tutors need more support and follow-up for the model to be successfully implemented.

The study by Jha and Dirkx deals with how implementing a careful and systematic plan to increase student retention actually reduced student attrition. The researchers found that the plan could be implemented by teachers with a minimum of training and a small allocation of class time.

The last piece, "Adult Literacy Assessment: Challenging the Status Quo" by Turner raises issues about adult literacy assessment. Turner argues that traditional assessment using standardized tests, are not adequate measures of an adult's strengths. In order to initiate change in the practice of adult literacy education, she feels that educators should consider using authentic, naturalistic, qualitative methods to assess learners and evaluate programs.

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LIFE IN THE CLASSROOM: A GROUNDED THEORY OF THE G.E.D. EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative study explores a grounded theory of "life in a G.E.D. class". It emphasizes the confusion underlying the student's interpretation of what it is he or she is doing in a G.E.D. classroom. Is it a form of schooling or is it something else? The participants in this study respond equivocally. For some it is like being back at school, a realization interpreted both positively and negatively. For others it is not like school and this too can be perceived as either good or bad. Making sense of the G.E.D. experience, from a grounded theory perspective, means dealing with three levels of the phenomenon: the phases and sequences of actions which describe a student's journey through the program; the themes which characterize his or her typical utterances about that experience, and finally the theory which attempts to integrate the categories of experience as well as the reflective themes.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore a grounded theory of "life in a G.E.D. class". The focus of this study is the description and interpretation of experience (Peshkin, 1993) as seen through the eyes of students who participate in a G.E.D program, some for as little as two weeks, others for as long as a year or more. The study reported here describes an emergent problem, one which initially focused on the factors lying behind retention and dropout from G.E.D. classes. In what follows, the origins of the study, the evolution of the question, and the emergent classification scheme will be described, along with the theory intended to capture significant relationships within the data.

Every year, millions of mostly younger adults take the G.E.D exam. For many, it has grown in importance as an alternative channel to a high school diploma and to the presumed economic and social rewards it brings with it. To prepare for the exam, young men and women often attend classes, sponsored by local high schools, community colleges, and job- training programs, at scattered sites around the community. The attrition rate from such programs is high and those eventually taking the exam are often a small percentage of those who entered classes. Studies have been conducted on the factors which affect retention and drop- out from ABE/GED programs (Beder, 1991; Dirkx & Jha, in press; Quigley, 1992). The study reported here began as one such study, part of a larger research program organized through the Nebraska Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy, under the direction of Dr. John Dirkx. (Dirkx & Jha, 1991)

The original aim of the current study was to supplement the quantitative studies of retention and drop- out, being conducted by the Nebraska Institute, with an in- depth qualitative analysis of the target population. Over a period of six months, however, what began as a quest for causal factors developed into a desire to gain a deeper understanding of how young adult men and women encounter this particular form of secondary education. Our question became, <u>what is the experience of a G.E.D program and in what ways is this experience related to persistence or dropout?</u> Eventually, even that question became limiting as we realized the importance of gaining, even for its own sake, an insight into the experience of classroom life by this special group of adult students.

With this shift in focus, a new series of questions began to suggest themselves. How does the student learn in this kind of environment? How does he or she relate to the teacher? How does the teacher teach? How do students relate to each other? As we began to ask these questions of the data we came to realize that though normal and everyday on the surface, the idea of returning to school is it really like school? is it even school?) to obtain a G.E.D. is not at all normal or even usual. Now, we began to recognize, is it obvious what is to constitute the student's learning experience once in the classroom. Indeed, can we even call it a class when every potential G.E.D. applicant seems in reality his or her own **island of learning?**

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

We chose Grounded Theory as an appropriate methodology for this study within a general umbrella of considerations. First, and of fundamental importance for us, the idea of experience carries with it the focus on actions, their motivation, and interpretation by the actor. Actions and interactions (and their conditions and consequences) are at the heart of the grounded theory perspective (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Second, though we would be focusing on 'life' in the classroom, which carries with it the implication of the classroom as 'culture', we felt that a traditional ethnographic approach (e.g. Spradley) did not permit us to go far enough in the direction of interpretation and explanation. Finally, though our basic datum would be the spoken word, we were not concerned with the analysis of language as such and so eliminated methodologies so driven, e.g. discourse/content analysis (Tesch, 1990).

"Theoretical Sampling" is the preferred method of data collection within the grounded theory framework. Typically, this means observations and interviews with a small number of potential participants, the analysis of which leads deliberately and systematically to other subjects. Our study is somewhat unique in that a sample of forty- five(45) had already been drawn from an original population of 2,323 enrolled in classes organized through a community college in the capital of a mid-western state. The 45 were interviewed using a semi-structured protocol intended to obtain information relevant to the issue of persistence and drop-out. From this pool of 45 we drew our final sample. This represents a **post-hoc analysis** of a study sample and is 'permitted' by the tenets of grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Our approach to theoretical sampling was dictated by (1) the emerging categories resulting from the open coding, (2) our desire to obtain as rich a data source as possible, and (3) the need to reflect somewhat proportionately the different categories of student, i.e. completers, continuers and dropouts. This resulted in the selection of thirteen (13) subjects for the final sample.

Open coding of a small number of transcripts drawn from the pool yielded a number of major categories and properties/dimensions of categories (Strauss, 1987). These categories were then subjected to testing and elaboration as more transcripts were analyzed. This process enabled us to begin "axial" coding and subsequently to identify major themes. Ultimately, the integration of categories and major themes resulted in a grounded theory of the ABE/GED experience.

FINDINGS

Based on an analysis and re-analysis of a number of transcripts and given that there are 'natural' points of change and redirection in the G.E.D program experience, even in those cases where the 'stay' is short, the experience of a G.E.D class falls naturally into two major phases: Entering the Class and Being in Class. A potential third phase, Leaving the Class, is evident in the data, even as it suggests itself logically. However, we chose to omit consideration of this phase in this portion of the project, mainly because of our desire to focus on in-class experiences.

PHASE I. ENTERING THE CLASS: FIRST ENCOUNTERS

This phase consists of the initial stages of entering the G.E.D. classroom, and coincides usually with the student taking pre- tests which lead to the 'diagnosis' of learning 'deficiencies'. This phase, which may run more than one night depending on how soon a student completes the pretest series, has six categories associated with it:

Entering the Class
Meeting the Teacher
Being Assessed/Tested
Program Trajectory
Back in School?
Rules of Engagement

Note: For reasons of space, in what follows, a selection of categories is defined and illustrated. Entering the Class. This describes the would- be student's first thoughts and actions as she (since most of the sample are women we will maintain an appropriate pronominal convention throughout) enters the classroom. The strongest memories are of fear and anxiety in the face of the unknown

> I just remember how nervous I was. I didn't know what it was going to be like. And I didn't know how it was set up or anything, and they were saying that I had to go to the library.

Meeting the Teacher. This category covers all of the "close encounters" with the teacher(s) and tutors the first night of 'class'. Describes how and under what conditions the student meets the teacher; how the initial contact is established; how the teacher greets the student and vice versa, and what those initial conversations consist of.

> When I walked in the door, Kathy was here, and she greeted me, and she said "What are you here for?" and I said "I'm here to get my GED." And so she said "Well this is the place, and we work on an individual basis. I'll give you some tests to determine where you're at and what areas you need to work on, and then we'll go from there".

We were surprised by the number of students who did not appear to identify the teacher as a teacher.

> Me and my cousin went down there, and mom dropped us off,... and we went in, found where we were supposed to go, we got the lady at the desk, we told her we were there for our first day of class, and we were supposed to be seated, and so we sat, and then these ladies came over, and wanted us to go with them, and take these beginner tests, and the other stuff. (emphasis added)

Getting Assessed/Taking Tests. The business of the first night consists essentially of filling out forms and taking pre- tests. This category describes the teacher in her professional role as an educator, a 'gatekeeper', who will make a judgment as to what 'course' or Program Trajectory the student will follow. The category has two subcategories: Being Assessed and Receiving Feedback.

> He had me do a test, and I hated it. I didn't like doing the test, because I couldn't do it, you know, I didn't remember hardly anything that was on there.

Back in School? What is it like to be in this classroom, this place wherein the rules of engagement have yet to be defined? Where are you, socially, existentially speaking? This category describes the students expectations, feelings, etc. regarding the teacher, class, and self as learner. Also includes impressions or interactions with other students.

> So I got the book, and I think that was the first book. I actually sat down and read, the instructions, the directions; and I shocked me, because I hate to read, I hate reading... So then I started on the other one, and I was just so alive and happy to be there, I couldn't believe how happy I was cause it was school, and I've never really been all that excited about schoolwork, but I was like ready to just give it my all...

PHASE II-BEING IN CLASS: THE ROUTINE

In Phase II, we move from an exploration of the actions, events and descriptions associated with the first night or nights of class to the post- testing, 'real class,' phase. At this point, the student has basically accepted or welcomed the opportunity of studying for the G.E.D. test and begins to attend class on a regular basis. In particular, we want to know, What does learning consist of in this

kind of environment and how does the student perceive her own as well as her teacher's roles with respect to each other.

Phase II consists of eight categories along with their associated properties. Again, for reasons of space, selective categories are defined and illustrated.

Establishing the Routine
Learning Work
Getting Time
The Impact of the Teacher
The Others and Interactions with Them
Taking Breaks
Being Comfortable in Class
Satisfaction with Class

Establishing the Routine. Despite the brevity with which some students enter and leave the program, there is evidence that a routine is established quickly, either because that is the nature of the context, i.e. there is little else to be done or 'mastered', or because the student (and the teacher?) has a strong desire to do so.

> I'd sit down and start working on my books, you always have to sign in. Sit down and if I got bored with one book ... you take it back. And then after you got to do what work you did, and you were there for the whole time, then you just leave at nine o'clock.

Learning Work. In the broadest sense, learning work encompasses all of those activities inside and outside of the classroom organized around the goal of taking and passing the G.E.D. test. Significantly, learning work can be viewed as both a central theme and as one of the categories of the "Being in Class" sequence. When students talk about their primary activities within the classroom around the topic of learning, they are talking about what they, rather than the teacher, do. And what they do is work.

> And I work on [the problems], and every once in a while I'll check the answers and see if they're wrong, and if they're wrong I'll go back and try to work out the problems, and if I can't work out the problems then I have Kathy or Kim or volunteers help me try to figure out what I did wrong to get the right answer. And that's usually how the class goes.

Students work essentially on their own, either by desire or because that is how the class is set up.

> Right when I walked into my class, I just sat down right away, asked for my books...;just sat down and before she could really say anything, I said "I'm ready, let me see the test, get me started." Then, usually after that, I never really talked to the teacher, I was just my own little world. (emphasis added)

Getting Time This category reflects the major form of interaction between teacher and student. It reflects the student's perception of how available the teacher is to help her. Calling this category "getting time" rather than "getting help" is intended to highlight the observation that often, in the relevant transcript passages, the student's evaluation of the teacher's helpfulness is couched in temporal rather than quality terms.

> She gave a lot of, to some of the other students, a lot of attention, but she didn't, you know, she didn't divide it up to where she could help all the students in there. She spent a lot of time with one student that was learning how to read, and I think that's where she was most of the time whenever I had my hand raised.

The Others and Interactions with Them. For the most part, and with some important exceptions, students occupy their "own little worlds" where the presence of other students is at best ignored or at worst an irritant.

> I don't know, I didn't really pay any attention to them. Everyday I'd go in there I'd just probably look around just to see what people were new and which ones were there that I've always seen. There were a lot of people I knew that were taking their GED, but I never, I didn't even bother taking the time to say Hi or anything, cause I just wanted to get to school and get it over.

Despite the preponderance of the isolated "islands of learners", we were tantalized by those cases where the teacher went to some lengths to make the classroom an 'integrated' one, introducing students to each other and, in especially significant cases, getting students to help each other with their 'learning work.

> She makes sure you're introduced and everyone knows who you are, who they are. She just gets the class's attention, and says "We've got a new pupil here tonight, I'd like to introduce you to him."

In summary, open and selective coding of thirteen protocols produced fourteen categories descriptive of a student's experiences- - actions/interactions and reflections on them- - in the G.E.D. classroom. The categories highlight what is significant about the student's entry into the program, her daily/weekly routine of "learning work", her impressions and/or interactions with others, primarily the teacher, and her overall ability to function and succeed in this particular kind of learning environment. In the concluding section, we explore the outline of a Grounded Theory of the G.E.D. experience.

CONCLUSIONS

Making sense of the G.E.D. experience means dealing with more than the sequences of actions which describe a student's journey through the program. It also requires the elucidation of themes which lie embedded in utterances and, most importantly, it calls for a theory which will integrate the categories of experience as well as the reflective themes.

In the construction of grounded theory, Strauss requires the researcher to do two things often: ask questions of the data and "constantly compare" observations with others from within the data and outside it. In our efforts to make sense of our own data, we were consistently drawn to the similarities and dissimilarities between the G.E.D setting and the traditional high school classroom. Compared with the latter, the G.E.D. classroom appears to be a confusing place. Is it "like school", a real class where you are supposed to learn something and the teacher is expected to teach you? Or, as often seems to be the case, is it more like a 'test site', where you occupy your "own little world" cut off from your companions, who are not really students anyway because this is not a class, and where someone who might not even be identified as a teacher is supposed to help you in often unspecified ways?

More often than not, it is the test site 'construction' which wins out: the student, like a solitary beaver, her "nose" in her books, and her learning consisting of the solution of disembodied problems. But there are glimpses of another world, wherein "these ladies" become teachers, transforming physical space from test site into classroom and the space's occupants from a collection of disconnected individual test- takers into a group of connected learners. The G.E.D. classroom is at once like school and not like school, and our grounded theory situates the learning process within this context of confused pedagogic import.

Qualitative methodologies hold considerable promise for the investigation of adult education phenomena hitherto limited in their yield by the quantitative paradigm. This study, we believe, contains important implications for both adult learning research and practice. For example, our findings suggest that, despite potential differences in learning style, students generally bring with them to class unexamined notions of how they should learn and how the teacher should teach.

With important exceptions, they accept the environment as they find it. In this respect, the G.E.D. instructor may have far more freedom than he or she thinks to experiment with the classroom 'format'. We are excited by evidence which shows that, at rare moments, the G.E.D. class in the hands of the skilled teacher becomes like a real classroom with real learning going on.

At the same time- - those "important exceptions"- - for some students the class is not really a class but a sort of 'holding pen', which some feel compelled into even as they want to "rush through" the whole experience and get away from (yet more) schooling as quickly as they can. In such cases and for such students, the attempt to teach them more than the test is clearly resented and resisted. And yet ambivalence remains as to what the G.E.D experience is really about. The epitome of this ambivalence is expressed in the remarks of the student, quoted above, who was "just so alive and happy to be there" while at the same time "just want[ing] to get to school and get it over [with]".

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DOING SOMETHING TO HELP: THEORIES AND BELIEFS OF INSTRUCTIONAL VOLUNTEERS IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Federally funded adult basic education (ABE) programs represent the largest provider of adult basic and literacy education in the United States. This system relies heavily on voluntary action to implement its goals. More than 90,000 individuals work as volunteers in this programs but few studies have examined the specific nature of ABE voluntary action. Using the ethnographic tradition and research on teacher belief systems, a study was undertaken to describe the implicit theories and beliefs that ABE volunteers use to guide and structure their actions within ABE settings. The results suggest that ABE voluntary action is viewed by volunteers as a highly individualized, helping process directed towards assisting students to achieve academic goals. Although they recognize the manifestation of personal and socio-cultural issues within their settings, the volunteers perceive these concerns to be outside the scope of their role. These belief systems raise serious concerns about the ability of ABE to move towards a more community-oriented, contextual approach to literacy education

INTRODUCTION

Volunteers play an increasingly important role in educational institutions in the United States. Especially in adult basic and literacy education, volunteers are often a major and sometimes even the sole source of face-to-face instruction. Approximately 150,000 individuals work as volunteers for Laubach Literacy Action (LLA) and Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA) programs and over 90,000 work as volunteers in federally funded adult basic education programs (ABE) (Tenenbaum & Strang, 1992). LLA and LVA are well organized national systems of volunteer-based literacy instruction, with articulated training programs and fairly extensive support services in many states. Relative to these volunteer systems, however, ABE volunteers have little, if any, national organization and their training programs are, in many areas, minimal to nonexistent. Despite the fact that these individuals work for the nation's largest provider of adult basic and literacy education (Beder, 1990), little is known about their qualifications, training, or instructional experiences.

As the economy remains stagnant and concerns over the federal budget continue, ABE's reliance on instructional volunteers will, in all likelihood, increase in the coming years. To insure quality programs and to reduce dissatisfaction and attrition among volunteer staff, ABE programs will need to develop effective strategies for recruiting, training and maintaining qualified individuals. These strategies require a sound knowledge base about the ABE volunteer experience. Previous work has suggested the need to undertake more extensive study of ABE voluntary action (Dirkx, Fonfara, & Flaska, 1993). It was to this end that the present study was conducted. Our purposes were to contribute to a better understanding of how individuals perceive their roles as ABE instructional volunteers through a qualitative study of nine ABE instructional volunteers working in three quite different programs.

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

Our focus in this project was not with the notion of voluntary action as such, with its attendant issues of altruism, commitment, organization, and sacrifice (Ilsley, 1990). Rather, we were concerned with understanding a particular kind of voluntary action and how individuals come to think about and perceive their role within this form of action. The great majority of ABE volunteers work in an instructional capacity, providing one-to-one or group instruction for adult learners who are learning or improving basic skills, preparing for the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) test, or studying English as a second language. In many programs, they are considered more as paraprofessionals than amateur volunteers (Ilsley, 1990).

Thus, one way to view the ABE volunteer experience is from the perspective of instruction or teaching. The general theoretical construct used to frame voluntary action in this study was "teacher belief," defined broadly as a personal form of knowledge represented by "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and academic material to be taught" (Kagan, 1992, p. 65). These assumptions often reflect relationships between tasks, events, actions, or other persons that make up the volunteer experience (Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, & Cuthbert, 1988). Previous studies have indicated a relationship between beliefs held by ABE teachers and how they structure their classrooms (Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992). Empirical studies of teacher beliefs have yielded two generalizations (Kagan, 1992) that are of relevance to our study. First, teachers' beliefs appear to be relatively stable and resistant to change. Second, these beliefs tend to be associated with a "congruent style of teaching" (p. 66) that is often manifest across a wide variety of instructional settings. This research suggests that individuals possess certain beliefs about their role as volunteers. Furthermore, these beliefs tend to shape future experiences in ABE, regardless of the setting and often in spite of continuing education or staff development.

Knowledge of volunteer beliefs, how they came to be acquired, and how they are changed is also of central importance to the training and continuing education. Staff development programs are unlikely to accomplish their goals unless they are made to fit within the existing belief systems of the participants (Eisenhart et al, 1988). Utilizing ethnographic procedures, our goal, then, was to identify and describe the kinds of beliefs that individuals used to shape and make sense of their experiences as ABE instructional volunteers, and how these beliefs are cognitively structured.

METHODS

Nine volunteers from three different ABE programs participated in this study: a) Eastridge Public School, located within a large metropolitan area; b) Lakeview Community College serving a mid-sized community and many rural counties; and c) Cedar Valley Public School, located within a small rural community. The cumulative numbers of volunteers working in these programs over the last academic year were, respectively, 131, 561, and 13. Eastridge Public School and Lakeview Community College ABE programs both included multiple instructional sites, with annual student enrollments exceeding 2000. Cedar Valley utilized one site and had an annual student enrollment of 52. Three volunteers from each of the programs were included in the study. All participants were white and eight were women. Their ages ranged from mid-thirties to early seventies, with six 60 years or older. Qualitative methods, heavily influenced by the ethnographic procedures of Spradley (1979), were used to collect and analyze data. Data collection procedures included face-to-face interviews of approximately 90 minutes to two hours in length, observations of the participants and settings, and program documents provided by the instructional volunteer and/or program directors at each location. Domain and taxonomic analyses were conducted to identify relevant domains and themes, and the ways the domains and themes were cognitively structured.

FINDINGS

The nine volunteers participating in this study reflected diverse backgrounds, educational histories, and experience. Seven were married or widowed, with children and/or grandchildren. Four had graduated from a four year college, one had a masters degree, and three had been school teachers. Four had one year or less of experience with ABE and four had more than two years of ABE experience. Almost all volunteer two to three hours per week. Six of these volunteers work in either a high school or junior/middle level school building. Three work in community-based settings, one provided instruction in a workplace, and one volunteer had a student come to her home. In almost all cases, the volunteer's actions took place within some kind of social context, with other students present and within face-to-face vision of each other.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES.

Volunteers were asked to describe what they do as an ABE volunteer. Analysis of these data lead to the identification of two broad categories: guiding principles and beliefs about the helping

process. Much of what volunteers described tended to reflect in an abstract sense their perceptions of the volunteer experience. These beliefs and perceptions appear to serve as a kind of educational credo which the volunteers use to guide their actions. We refer to this set of beliefs and perceptions as "guiding principles." For example, virtually all the volunteers described reasons for becoming involved in voluntary action. These beliefs reflect a sense of mutuality about volunteering.

> I figured that I could give one night back to the public or back to somebody that hasn't reached the point where my family has (03, 5: 39-41). It makes you feel good to help people. I like to do that. My feeling about that whole thing is everyone should do something to help, something like volunteer (05, 9: 3.3-4.6).

Three were former teachers and saw volunteering as a continuation of their earlier careers, and three said they were motivated to volunteer because it represented a substitute for teaching. This view of volunteering as teaching is reflected in their beliefs about the adults who attend their programs. All volunteers referred to these individuals as "students." Their beliefs about students suggest a process of attribution which they use to make sense of differences in the ways their adult students learn. Among the attributes observed were age, ability, and developmental influences:

> The older the students are, the faster they progress. The younger ones come in giggling.. and just stay half an hour then go run the streets because their parents don't expect them home. The older folks will stay the 2.5 hours because they want to make the most out of class (03, 24: 9-11, 25: 1-2). There were all levels of students in this class. Some who's educational level was high and others, well, very low, one man's reading and math skills were about second or third grade level (06, 3: 8-9.5, 4: 1-1.83). I'm working with a boy from a neighboring town who graduated from high school in 1988. He reads at the seventh grade level. I don't know if I'll be able to do anything with him. I don't know how he got through school in the first place (10, 9: 2.88-7.33). I think some of the students want to learn but for various reasons they just can't and drift off (04, 14: 3-5). There was this one student who told me he had a learning disability. The classroom teacher told me he would never get past the sixth grade reading level. He was there to learn how to read better. I think he knew his limitations too. He was a little bit...developmentally delayed
> (05, 18: 6-9).

Some volunteers believed that cultural or ethnic backgrounds influenced the learning process. For example, they indicated the Asian population that attended class demonstrated a higher level of seriousness for education than did the other students. This emphasis on individual differences among their learners was associated with an overwhelming commitment to individualized instruction. Although a few volunteers pointed out the need for group instruction and the development of social skills, most stressed the importance of individualization and the self-directedness of adult learners:

> They have the ability to do these things on their own. If they need help, well I can help them (04, 8: 2-3).

To summarize, in responding to the question of what they do as volunteers, the study participants used abstract descriptions resembling a kind of educational credo. This credo characterizes voluntary action in ABE as highly individualized teaching, grounded in a strong sense of mutuality and a belief that differences among students influence the ways they learn and how and why they learn. Volunteers see themselves as helpers and the specific ways in which they describe this role reveal the elements of this helping process.

BELIEFS ABOUT VOLUNTEERING AS A HELPING PROCESS.

The term "helping" was the most persistent and prevalent term that participants used to describe what they do as volunteers. For example:

> I helped them with math most of the time... (04, 5: 8.5-9). I have helped a lot with reading....I go home at night very elated that they have pronounced a word...because usually I help them (03, 4: 8-11). One day I helped Jan with contractions as well as another student that was working on his GED...(08, 20: 1-4). I am helping these people in their struggle to deal with this new situation they're in (06, 18: 5-7).

Ways of Helping. From the volunteers' perspectives, the process of helping is structured around sets of beliefs about ways to help, kinds of things to help with, and factors which influence the helping process. A few volunteers talked about helping the instructor with management of the learning setting and performing other administrative tasks, such as maintaining student files and recording test grades. Helping, however, is a process that is overwhelmingly directed towards students. Ways of helping students include a) planning curriculum and selecting instructional materials, b) guiding and directing students when they are experiencing difficulty, c) encouraging students to achieve their goals and rewarding them for perceived progress, d) observing and listening to students to see when or where they may need help, e) keeping the students focused on the academic tasks at hand, f) checking on their progress and administering and grading tests. These seven functions represent the kinds of "helping skills" that volunteers perceive they use when they are working with students.

Kinds of Things to Help With. The volunteers also discussed what it is they help with, revealing three areas as the focus of their helping: a) subject matter, b) life skills, and c) personal issues. Their descriptions of what they do reflect predominantly a concern about helping students with subject matter, mostly in math and reading:

> I usually start them with, "you use Algebra all of the time"....Basically, I try and play down that Math is something hard or difficult (04, 8: 6-9). I'll sit and work with a student in math. One girl I was working with in math was learning her fractions. I suggested she memorize her multiplication facts first (07, 20: 2-5). I work with students mostly in reading. We do watch the students spelling, like today I noticed Jan misspelled something. I had her use her dictionary (08, 25: 5-7).

Although less frequently mentioned, life skills were also the focus of helping for several of the volunteers. These skills include a wide range of experiences from making the correct change, reading a calendar, using a ruler, finding information in the telephone directory and forming a neighborhood watch program. Other life skills included how to locate the various community and state agencies, how to take a drivers test, using the newspaper to find different job descriptions, and how to write checks. Although academic skills are involved in all these contexts, there was little evidence that volunteers integrate life skills instruction with academic areas. These skills tend to represent a parallel curriculum, with the majority of attention given to traditional subjects of math and reading. Even less well integrated as a curricular area were "personal issues." All the volunteers acknowledged this area as something that comes up within the learning setting but they varied considerably in their perceptions of how appropriate these expressions were in the ABE setting and how they should respond within their transactions with students:

> The girl I had from Greece and the girl I had from Thailand had very difficult sad experiences and they were very anxious to share that. More than I really cared to hear. But I let them talk, because I knew they needed to (10, 18: 1-7).

This volunteer's comment depicts the kind of ambiguity surrounding personal student issues that many of the volunteers expressed. While some expressed more empathy regarding these issues than others, all volunteers considered the manifestation of personal issues to be something they needed to help with but which was clearly outside the scope of what they were really there for.

Factors Influencing the Helping Process. Volunteer descriptions of their actions also revealed factors which influence what they specifically do within the helping process. Volunteer preferences and abilities were frequently mentioned as factors which lead a volunteer to do more of one thing than another. These comments usually focused on subject matters that they prefer have done some math, but I am not real comfortable with it, if it is basic, well then I can help, but I really love reading and English (03, 5: 1-4). I really like to teach math. Sometimes it's nice getting a break from listening to Quan reading, that gets real boring after a while I want something that I have to think about what I am doing (05, 22: 8-12).

Institutional and programmatic factors also influence volunteer actions. These factors included orientation sessions, training manuals provided to them by the programs, and specific requests from program personnel to follow specific guidelines when working with students, such as confidentiality issues. Volunteers' beliefs about students and the kinds of students in their programs also influence their specific roles and how they help. Students who are perceived to be learning disabled or developmentally delayed are more often taught life skills, while others receive academic instruction. Younger learners require the volunteers to be more directing and structuring while older learners are perceived to be self-directed.

DISCUSSION

IDEOLOGICAL FOCUS OF ABE VOLUNTARY ACTION.

Hayes and Snow (1989) define at least two approaches to adult basic and literacy education: a) a focus on the individual learner as being deficient in certain basic skills necessary for functioning effectively in today's society; and b) an approach which views illiteracy and the lack of basic skills as products of specific sociocultural contexts rather than the deficits of individuals. In the first approach, the role of voluntary action is viewed as providing an individual-based, technical process in which these deficits are corrected through emphasis on reading, writing, and math skills. The role of the tutor or teacher is to foster awareness of literacy as a social and cultural phenomenon by contextualizing basic skills within the experiences of the participants as members of a community in which they all share interest. The ideological focus reflected in the beliefs of the volunteers participating in this study, evidenced in both the guiding principles and their beliefs about the helping process, is fully consistent with the highly individualized, deficit-oriented approach.

RELATIONSHIP OF BELIEFS TO ACTION. These belief structures influence how the volunteers perceive their role and the nature of the voluntary action in which they engage. There is little evidence in this study that volunteers are aware of or sensitive to the broader socio-cultural factors at play within learners' lives or communities. Through one-on-one, individualized helping, learners are encouraged to "persist" rather than "resist" and to accommodate existing social and political structures rather than critique them. "Difficulties" in learning are attributed to characteristics of individual learners and lack of progress is often ascribed to the learner's low motivation. Implicit in this view of voluntary action is the notion that academic achievement and progress will contribute to the student's ability to cope with their difficulties and to progress in life. The volunteer's job is to assist in this process through the use of specific helping skills that are consistent with their personal preferences and abilities, the mission of the program, and with the needs of their individual learners.

THE FOCUS OF THE HELPING PROCESS. Helping skills are used primarily to assist learners in specific subject areas or, less frequently, "life skills." Personal, psychosocial, and community issues that students may bring to the setting are generally regarded as outside the scope of this helping process. Volunteers appear to set boundaries for themselves in terms of how "close" they get to their students. To avoid addressing such concerns they often develop unique strategies to help students stay on task. Directing them back to the task is a helping skill and listening to the students' "personal" problems is seen as a way to help them get back on task. This academic focus of the helping process stands in sharp contrast to the strong psychosocial orientation of the process reflected in the helping professions (Carkhuff & Anthony, 1989; Combs & Avila, 1985)

CONCLUSION.

This study represents one of the few attempts to empirically describe ABE voluntary action and to identify the underlying belief systems which guide and structure this action. Through this study we have defined the ways in which ABE voluntary action is cognitively structured by nine volunteers. If these beliefs, as some suggest, are relatively stable and resistant to change (Eisenhart et al, 1988), the findings present potentially important issues for staff development and training, particularly as the field of ABE tries to move towards a more contextually-based approach to instruction. Continued reliance on volunteers with beliefs similar to those participating in this study present both ethical and empirical questions regarding our ability to facilitate changes in volunteer belief structures. Obviously, much more work needs to be done in this area before we can confidently talk about general belief systems and theories of ABE volunteers.

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DROPOUT AND RETURN: THE EXPERIENCE OF SCHOOL AS ARTICULATED BY OLDER ADULT BASIC EDUCATION STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to describe factors which prompted older adults to leave school as children and to return as older adults; data drawn from interviews with 119 older adults enrolled in basic education and high school completion programs also describe their experience as students. The implications for practice suggest ways in which educational practitioners can increase the effectiveness of their basic education programs for older adults.

THE PROBLEM

Census data (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1984 Older Persons. State Profiles. 1987) describe a level of educational attainment by older adults lower than the population as a whole and a level of participation in literacy education considerably less than what might be expected when compared with the total population. This has potentially serious implications for educators and service deliverers in a nation where problems of illiteracy among adults in general are not being resolved, where increasing proportions of the population live to be older adults, and where the demands to be functionally literate are rising.

Researchers disagree whether literacy is necessary for older adults to function properly. Some suggest that "they must be able to read a variety of forms and instructions in order to function at all, to fill out a welfare application form, for example, or to read a doctor's list of recommended foods" (Rigg & Kazemek, 1983, p. 417). Others argue that "the mere fact that an individual has survived for 80 years implies at least some degree of past functional competence" (Courtenay, Stevenson, & Suhart, 1982, p. 344), and "the lack of basic literacy skills has not deterred many older adults from living their lives as productive successful adults" (Kasworm, 1981, p. 10). Little is known about how their paucity of basic skills or lack of educational credentials influences the lives of individual older adults or how it affects their ability to maintain themselves. Nor has much been learned about the experience of older adults in basic education programs or about ways in which these programs respond to their needs and goals.

The purpose of this paper is to describe factors which prompted older adults to leave school as children and to return as older adults and to describe their experience as older adult students. These data are drawn from a larger study, funded by the AARP Andrus Foundation, which examined the experiences of 119 older adults enrolled in adult basic education and high school completion programs. In this study, the word "illiteracy" is used broadly to describe whatever deficit in basic skill or educational credential is present among the older adults interviewed.

METHODOLOGY

In order to increase understanding and create substantive theory about this topic, a grounded theory research design was employed. Through the use of structured hour- long interviews, qualitative data were gathered from the interviewees about their experience of discontinuing their education as children and youth, barriers which may have impeded their return earlier, and their experience as older adult learners in basic education programs. This naturalistic information based on the experience and opinions of the subjects was used to develop a substantive theory to explain literacy-related phenomena among older adults. Quantitative measures were used to gather demographic data.

The interview schedule was developed at the inception of the project and was field- tested with older adults in basic skills programs conducted by public libraries. A coding form was developed by the principal investigator and three colleagues and used with 10% of the transcripts in order to assure inter-coder reliability. Where possible within topical areas, qualitative data were converted to nominal measures for ease of presentation and to allow for the use of contingency tables and

nonparametric analytical techniques to examine levels of independence and strength of association.

THE SAMPLE

Investigating the impact of illiteracy on older adults is hampered by two methodological difficulties. The first is identification. Beyond the plethora of grade level and functional definitions of literacy, there is the finding (Fisher, 1988) that a clear dividing line does not exist between readers and nonreaders. The second problem is one of location. Beyond the obvious practical difficulties inherent in identifying members of this subpopulation, how does one distinguish among persons who do not read because of physical limitations, because they have decided not to, because they have no need to read, and because they lack the education or skill to read? This study includes as subjects persons enrolled in basic education programs - persons who by their enrollment have acknowledged their lack of skill or schooling.

Two state-wide literacy providers assisted in the identification of students aged 55 and above enrolled in their basic education programs in the southeastern part of a midwestern state. Potential participants were contacted by coordinators and teachers at the program sites where they participated in basic education; tape-recorded interviews were scheduled and conducted at the program sites, and later were intrascribed to a computer disk and printed.

The mean age of those interviewed was 64; ages ranged from 55 to 82. The largest number were White (55%), followed by Blacks (35%), and Hispanics (8%). Numbers of males and females interviewed were nearly equal. Most of the interviewees had been employed as factory or service workers, requiring various levels of skill; a few had been homemakers, supervisors, managers, or owners of businesses such as service stations, real estate, and farms. Nearly one fourth were currently employed.

The largest group (45%) were enrolled in basic education classes; 26% were enrolled in classes which prepared them to pass the five tests which would provide them with the General Education Development certificate. An additional 10% were enrolled in study leading to a high school diploma, either through an alternative competency- based curriculum or through a combination of tests and classes. The "Other" category comprised 19% who were enrolled in various basic education courses as a review, for job retraining, or as lifelong learners.

FINDINGS

DROPOUT FACTORS

The overriding cause for ceasing school attendance was poverty; approximately half of those interviewed stopped school to go to work because the family needed their support. Others(14%) spoke of inadequate resources to provide the clothing, supplies, and transportation needed to attend school. Others discontinued school because of ill-health (12%), because they became pregnant and married (11%), because they disliked it (7%), or because of such societal interruptions as race riots and war (6%). See Table 1. Few than 25% left school because of disinterest or spoke of problems in school that were unrelated to the family circumstances.

Half were either oldest or youngest among their siblings, placing them in positions where they could be called upon to assume "adult- like" responsibilities such as care of children or elderly relatives, activities which took them away from school. Over half (58%) had attended fewer than eight years of school; nearly one quarter (24%) had attended some high school, and 18% of those interviewed had completed high school but were enrolled in basic skills programs for purposes of job retraining or skill upgrading. The average level of completion was 7th grade. In many cases, however, the school experience was filled with intermittent attendance, low quality instruction, and one in which the interviewees outgrew their grade levels: many spoke of quitting school in third grade at the age of 12 or 13.

Table 1
School Related Experiences in Childhood

VARIABLE	MEASURE	PERCENT
BIRTHORDER	OLDEST	28
	YOUNGEST	22
	MIDDLE	50
GRADE LEFT SCHOOL	NO SCHOOL	4
	GRADES 1-3	18
	GRADES 4-6	12
	GRADES 7-8	24
	GRADES 9-11	24
	COMPLETED HS	18
REASON LEFT SCHOOL	WORK	50
	POVERTY	14
	HEALTH	12
	MARRIED	12
	DISLIKED IT	7
	SOCIETAL	6

MOTIVATION TO RETURN

The principal reasons which interviewees gave for enrolling in basic education programs were in response to changing family circumstances or to the encouragement of others; 2) to increase their proficiency at life skills, such as being able to read for themselves; 3) to fulfill personal and often lifelong goals; and 4) to obtain or improve employment. Key driving forces behind these reasons are related to independence, self- fulfillment, and encouragement. See Table 2.

The rationale given for participating in school at this point in their lives as opposed to earlier was straightforward: 54% said their time previously had been consumed by work and family responsibilities; 18% said they were employed and since their positions did not require basic skills, they had no need to participate in a basic skills program. Others mentioned changes in work or family which necessitated their participation, encouragement by others, their awareness of the program, and the failures of earlier efforts as reasons for their participation at the present time.

Most (76%) spoke of strong support from family and friends, but the remainder presented pictures of varying levels of indifference and opposition. Students told how they prevailed over lack of support and opposition. In some instances, students chose not to tell family members; in fact, some were planning to miss their own graduation in order not to be identified.

Table 2
Factors which Motivated Participation in Basic Skills Education

VARIABLES	MEASURES	PERCENT
MOTIVATING FACTORS	OTHER-DIRECTED	29
	LIFE SKILLS	27
	SELF-DIRECTED	24
	EMPLOYMENT	20
RATIONALE FOR RETURNING NOW	NOT ENOUGH TIME EARLIER	54
	NO NEED EARLIER	18
	CHANGES IN LIFE	9
	ENCOURAGEMENT	7
	AWARE OF PROGRAM	6
	TRIED EARLIER	6
FAMILY SUPPORT	STRONG	76
	MIXED	12
	NONE	8
	OPPOSITION	2
	NOT TELL FAMILY	2

EXPERIENCE OF SCHOOL AS AN OLDER ADULT

When interviewees were asked to speak about their current educational experiences, 43% described the instructional format as tutorial, usually one-on-one 39% described it as individual 'study, whether computer- assisted or teacher- assisted and 18% described some level of formal or organized activities, such as discussion, class, or class mixed with individualized study. See Table 3. Favorite aspects of the instruction were learning activities (45%), social interaction (31%), and the goal or content of the learning (20%). Many spoke of the challenge of learning, the increase in self-confidence, and the level of each student's independence combined with the availability of assistance when needed. Comparatively few students were able to identify aspects of the instruction which they disliked: their responses were scattered among transportation (driving and parking problems), cognition (problems learning and remembering), time (time required in class, time required to study, time away from the family, and the limited amount of time during which the program would provide instruction), and distractions (especially

Perceived benefits gained by the interviewees included cognitive benefits (60%) such as learning a skill, content, or just learning how to learn; affective benefits (28%) such as keeping the mind active, increasing self-confidence, and building a sense of personal accomplishment. Students enrolled in ABE programs were more likely to be able to identify benefits than those engaged in GED/HSD programs.

Table 3
Experience in Educational Programs

VARIABLES	MEASURES	PERCENT
TYPE OF INSTRUCTION	TUTORIAL	43
	INDIVIDUAL STUDY	39
	FORMAL STUDY	18
WHAT STUDENTS LIKE BEST	LEARNING	45
	SOCIAL	31
	GOAL	20
	OTHER	4
PERCEIVED BENEFITS	COGNITIVE	60
	AFFECTIVE	28
	OTHER	9
	DON'T KNOW	3
LENGTH OF TIME IN PROGRAM	0 - 6 MOS	34
	7 - 12 MOS	14
	13 - 24 MOS	23
	2 - 4 YRS	16
	5 - 7 YRS	5
	8+ YRS	6
	OTHER	2
PARTICIPATED IN PRIOR EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS?	NO	40
	BASIC SKILLS	28
	WORK-RELATED	20
	ENRICHMENT	9
	OTHER	3
LENGTH OF PARTICIPATION IN PRIOR BASIC SKILLS PROGRAM	LESS THAN 1 YR	73
	MORE THAN 1 YR	27
PERSONAL GOAL	GENERAL	69
	FOCUSED	31
WHEN ATTAIN PERSONAL GOAL	DON'T KNOW	21
	1 - 12 MOS	40
	13 - 23 MOS	8
	2 - 4 YRS	8
	5+ YRS	2
	OTHER	21

The largest number of students (69%) articulated general goals such as "learning to read," getting a GED or high school diploma, or continuing to attend classes; 31% identified much more focused goals, such as particular instrumental use of literacy skills, obtaining a job, or enrolling in a particular educational program. Many students had little sense when they would be able to achieve their goals: 21% said they didn't know, and 10% said it would require at east two years. On the other hand, 40% of those interviewed expected to achieve their goals within 12 months, and an additional 8% within 23 months.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Apart from their participation in basic education programs, there was little to distinguish the activities of this group of persons from their socio-cultural peers except that they employed particular strategies to cope with their inability to read and write, or their lack of educational credentials. both basic education and high school completion students spoke of the stigma they felt as the result of their low level of skills or lack of schooling. While these students were externally indistinguishable from older adult students in general, program leaders need to develop avenues for access to programs which do not force undue exposure on older adult basic education and high school students.

Accounts of their reasons for leaving school and of their lifetime strategies for coping indicate that many of these persons have well- honed survival skills despite their lack of schooling. Educational practitioners may serve these students more effectively by regarding them as persons who have succeeded in many aspects of life despite their lack of basic skills or schooling, rather than as persons who have failed because of this lack.

Discussion of their reasons for returning to school focused on four fairly explicit reasons: the influence of others, the desire to learn life skills, personal goals, and the need to prepare for employment. Interviewees were generally quite clear about their motivation for returning to school. At the same time, when asked about their educational goals, interviewees were much less clear: over two thirds had very general goals, and the rest had more specific or instrumental goals. Many high school completion and GED students could only articulate that they were in school to obtain their high school diploma with no notion how it would benefit them or how they would use it. Similarly, some basic skills students wanted to learn to read just anything - without a clear sense of what. Benefits (what they were gaining currently from their educational experience) were more readily articulated than goals. Educational practitioners may be able to capitalize on the motivational forces which bring older adult students to basic education and high school completion programs by learning more about each student's reasons for being there, by developing individual educational plans which directly address those reasons, and by helping students set goals beyond the completion of the program.

What kept each of these persons in school was some mix of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Internal fortitude was combined with external forces, such as change in family or work or personal encouragement. Each student brings a different combination of internal strength based on personal goals and the need for external support. Educational practitioners play a critical role in providing encouragement to older adult students as well as creating a climate in which students provide support for each other.

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AN EVALUATION OF AN ADULT LITERACY SMALL GROUP/COLLABORATIVE TUTOR TRAINING MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to identify the strengths and weaknesses of an adult literacy small group/collaborative tutor training model. Data were collected from 53 programs participating in Literacy Volunteers of America's small group tutor training (SGTT) pilot study. Data from project documents were coded, categorized and collapsed into four major areas of concern: benefits to learners; difficulties of learners; issues and concerns of group facilitation and management; and positive input. Interviews with LVA national field service staff and national trainers were also conducted to gather further contextual data concerning the conduct and content of the training and expectations for follow-up during the project year. The findings were consistent with the research literature on the benefits of small group/collaborative learning for adults. Management and administrative issues contributed to the perceived benefits and difficulties of the participants in the study. It was concluded that volunteer tutors, learners, and trainers will need additional time and assistance with this new teaching strategy. Recommendations for future research and program improvement are made.

AN EVALUATION OF AN ADULT LITERACY
SMALL GROUP/COLLABORATIVE TUTOR TRAINING MODEL

Small group, collaborative learning offers an alternative to the traditional, one-to-one adult literacy tutorials. Collaborative learning represents an adult education perspective where "the learner and teacher cooperatively determine the ends, means, and evaluation of learning" (Conti, 1978, p.1). According to Imel (1991), there is "little discussion of collaborative learning itself, that is, what it is, how it is implemented, and its strengths and weaknesses" (p.1). This research reports on an evaluation of a small group tutor training (SGTT) model developed and field tested by Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc.

This paper outlines how the pilot study was implemented and evaluated. Data are organized around the four main themes which emerged from the data as reported by tutors, learners and tutor trainers. Recommendations for future program improvement and further research are then discussed.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Although collaborative learning is restructuring the classroom in many different contexts (MacGregor, 1990; Bruffee, 1987), adult literacy programs remain one of the few places where people do not organize themselves for collaborative learning. There is wide support in the adult education literature for the use of collaborative learning (Conti, 1978). One of the few examples of small group/collaborative tutor training models designed for adult literacy has been developed by Cheatham & Lawson (1990). Their SGTT model includes the philosophy of small groups, the cycle of learning in a collaborative learning group and how to work with learners to set goals, plan lessons, and assess progress. This SGTT model is consistent with concepts and principles of participatory (Fingeret and Jurmo (1989) and systems theory of adult literacy education (Kazemek & Kazemek, 1992)

METHODOLOGY

DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected from programs participating in LVA's SGTT pilot study between November 1, 1990 and April 30, 1992. A total of 70% (N= 53) of the original 75 programs from fourteen states provided data for analysis. Those not submitting reports included programs that did not participate after receiving the initial training due to changes in their staffing and budgets.

Programs were both community- based (501-3c) and sponsored (ABLE programs, libraries) and included those affiliated with Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. (LVA) and Laubach Literacy Action (LLA).

Data sources included project applications, working agreements, quarterly reports, telephone logs, training materials and interviews of learners, tutors and tutor trainers. Interviews with national LVA staff were also conducted to gather further contextual data concerning the conduct and content of the training and expectations for follow-up during the project year. This evaluation did not include any information concerning the budget or expenditures, however.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data from the quarterly reports were specifically examined to determine the perceived strengths and weakness of the SGTT model. Responses from these project documents were then coded, categorized and collapsed into four major areas of concern. These included: benefits to learners; difficulties of learners; issues and concerns of group facilitation and management; and other positive input. Information from the reports were verified by interviewing program staff. Peer debriefing and member checks were made by sharing findings and analyses and comparing perceptions with program participants and LVA staff. The documentation also served the purpose of establishing credibility and trustworthiness (Patton, 1990).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings are consistent with the research literature on the benefits of small group/collaborative learning for adults. Responses included various psycho-social benefits: "provided peer support, aid, concern for others"; "small groups build bonds among learners"; "provided social time where interpersonal relationships and socialization skills are developed"; "students learned that everyone has strengths and weaknesses"; and "enhanced sense of self with a gain in self-esteem."

Cognitive benefits included: "interaction among learners increased the opportunity to share knowledge"; "membership supports retention, assignment completion, student participation"; "developed critical thinking skills"; "reading, writing, speaking, listening skills developed"; "opportunity to read and write on personal interests increased the motivation to write"; "provided environment to improve problem solving skills through the discovery of multiple solutions and views to problems and issues."

The data validate such powerful motivators for adults to engage in small group/collaborative learning activities and continue to attend literacy sessions with their learner groups. The benefits also suggest both a social and cognitive basis for learning (Bruffee, 1987).

"Fear of making mistakes and being embarrassed in front of peers"; "intimidation and inadequacy felt by learners with little or no reading ability"; interpersonal struggles within the group due to different goals, expectations, cultural backgrounds"; and "inconsistent attendance and punctuality" were expressed as difficulties of the learners participating in the SGTT Model.

Many of these difficulties should have been addressed in the administrative guidelines (Clark, 1990) presented during the original training of this project. The feelings of the learners themselves cannot be accounted for by lack of training alone, however. The personal fear and anxieties may have been due to lack of experience by the tutors in knowing how to deal with these problems. The composition of the groups may also have contributed to the problem.

Issues and concerns were related to three main sub- categories: group facilitation; programming; and other concerns. "Inconsistent attendance" and "multiple skill levels" were identified with issues and concerns regarding group facilitation. Due to the emphasis placed on these problematic areas in the Small Group Administrator's Guide (Clark, 1990), these findings were surprising. These issues and concerns seem to result from administrative decisions made in the formulation of the group of learners. Either the training was inadequate, the guidelines not

understood or the program administrators were unable to carry out these suggestions - or some combination of these explanations.

Programming issues and concerns included: "obtaining a commitment from volunteer instructors"; "eighteen hour workshops too long for some volunteers"; "fear of "lack" of traditional structure in tutoring"; "recordkeeping and time necessary to plan lessons that will develop each student in the direction she/he needs"; "difficult to persuade tutors on the value of small groups"; "tutors comfortable with one-to-one, especially those with no prior teaching experience."

Tutors, adult learners and trainers may need additional time and assistance with these new teaching strategies. Tutors who were from well supported programs and which have embraced an eclectic approach to tutoring expressed fewer of these concerns with the SGTT model.

Other issues and concerns identified were: "agency changes due to funding cutbacks"; "funding for materials and training"; "space availability"; and "student recruitment." Some of the external factors were beyond the control of the programs participating in the project (the funding cutbacks were not anticipated). Other factors are administrative considerations addressed by Clark (1990) and DuPrey (1992).

"When combined with the LVA one-to-one tutor training workshop, the SGTT model could be given in an intense nine-hour training"; "co-facilitation provided shared responsibility"; and "the SGTT model was very flexible for use with family literacy, parenting and teenage mothers, Commercial Driver's License, math, writing, English-as-Second Language" were identified as other positive input.

Some of these responses suggest alternative settings for the SGTT model - in ways not originally intended. The use of co-facilitators was another benefit. Such paring made recruitment easier. There were flexibility with volunteer instructors and a decrease of workload because of the shared responsibility. Tutors reported less pressure and more of an enjoyable experience.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT

Additional follow- up is needed to support and evaluate the efforts of participating programs. There are still too many unknowns concerning the successful implementation of a small group tutor training program. The training for the SGTT model should be separated from the training needed for administrative guidelines. The model did not provide for follow-up in-service training although such support was needed by the participants. Adequate support for learners and tutors need to be provided in program budgets. Further clarification as to the range of skill levels of learners needs to be made in training materials. The small group instructional model was too complicated for many of the volunteer instructors. The cycle of a small group lesson needs to be simplified. Training strategies for co- facilitation of small groups should be developed. The concepts of cooperative and collaborative learning need to be clarified in order for tutors and trainers to have a clearer understanding of their roles.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Additional follow- up needs to be made to understand a small group/collaborative approach to adult literacy instruction. Developing such a model that is "volunteer friendly" is critical. It was not known what differences there were in the implementation of this model in community-based versus ABLE sponsored programs. Does attendance and persistence really increase as a result of the support given by small groups? What is the skill range appropriate for this model? What management practices are most critical to retain volunteer instructors? What are the benefits of co-facilitation? Finally, what evidence is there that this model offers true collaborative learning and not cooperative learning under the leadership of the facilitator? Are community-based programs more likely to develop collaborative learning groups than sponsored programs? A follow-up study would be useful to not only measure increased capacity and services, but also to conduct a needs assessment for future programming.

SUMMARY

Although many benefits of small group/collaborative learning for adults were identified, management issues contributed to the difficulties of the learners and tutors. Issues of attendance and multiple skill levels related to problems in group facilitation. Other concerns were related to resistance to change from one-to-one settings to the SGTT model. Positive input included the benefits of co-facilitating small groups. Recommendations for future programming include separating the SGTT model and the small group administration training. Further research on the SGTT model is needed in both community-based as well as sponsored programs.

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DOING SOMETHING ABOUT DROPOUT: A STUDY OF A PARTICIPATORY APPROACH TO ADDRESSING STUDENT ATTRITION IN ADULT EDUCATION

LaDeane R. Jha and John M. Dirkx

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify, implement and evaluate specific strategies which might be employed in an ABE program to increase the proportion of students who remain long enough to complete their goals. The study addresses several issues: 1) The effectiveness of involving a task force of ABE personnel in framing the research, 2) the influence of the three strategies on retention and 3) the potential usefulness of the strategies and materials for program-wide implementation. The implemented strategies resulted in a significant decrease in the number of students who discontinued the program and also an increase in those who were continuing in the program at the conclusion of the study. Results show that the differences were due to particular strategies used alone or in combination. Use of a risk factor check list proved to be a statistically significant way to identify students who were more at risk for leaving a program.

INTRODUCTION

Adult basic education (ABE) programs are the primary providers of adult literacy education today (Beder, 1991), and yet these programs serve only about eight percent of their target population (Beder, 1991; Pugsley, 1990). Although many teachers in ABE work with capacity filled classrooms, student attrition rates continue to hover at 60-70% or more (Beder, Baldwin, Merrifield, & Quigley, 1993; Jha & Dirkx, 1992; Grede & Friedlander, 1981; Mezirow, Darkenwald, & Knox, 1975). Quigley (1992) identifies the high rate of attrition as the number one program issue in literacy education today. Additionally, Sticht (1988) and Dirkx and Jha (1992) concluded that most ABE students do not attend literacy programs for long periods of time, thus the first few hours in class become critical in retaining ABE students.

Despite numerous prescriptions for increasing retention, and previous research on student dropout and retention, clear, effective and empirically grounded programmatic responses to this problem have yet to be articulated. Increasing numbers of scholars recognize that the causes of ABE attrition are multi-dimensional and program specific. Few, if any, of these prior efforts, however, have actively involved practitioners in studying and addressing this issue within the contexts of their own programs. Even fewer are studies which systematically evaluate the effects of potential interventions on attrition. This study utilized a participatory research framework to identify potential factors contributing to attrition and to develop, implement and evaluate specific strategies to increase student retention. Specifically we examined the effectiveness of three retention strategies developed by a practitioner task force to address retention issues within the practitioners' program.

METHODOLOGY

This study took place in a community college-based ABE program over a three year period. Potential factors contributing to student attrition were identified from data collected on more than 2300 students and from student and teacher interviews. This analysis lead to a recognition of broad outcomes of enrollment within the student population (Dirkx & Jha, forthcoming). Data on these groups of students were used as baseline measures ("baseline group") for comparisons within the experimental component of the study.

A practitioner task force, comprised of two teachers, two instructional volunteers, a program supervisor, a volunteer coordinator and two university researchers met over a period of several weeks, reviewed these data and identified several factors which might be contributing to the attrition problem. Using knowledge of these factors, the task force then constructed three strategies to increase retention rates and selected six sites and instructors to implement these strategies. The three identified strategies consisted of combinations of three components: a)

assessment and feedback (AF), b) orientation plus assessment and feedback (OAF), and c) orientation, assessment and feedback and goal setting (OAFGS). Chosen sites and teachers reflected the larger program with reference to: size, time of day, number of days per week of class and class location (both central and neighborhood sites). Both teachers who participated on the task force also participated as teachers during the implementation phase of the project. Each strategy was implemented by two teachers. Procedures and materials were developed for each strategy, teachers were trained and administrative procedures dealing with enrollment were modified. Strategies were implemented and classrooms were observed to ascertain the degree of compliance with identified strategy procedures. Extensive records were kept on the students by the classroom teachers and sites were continually monitored by the researchers. One class was closed to enrollment during much of the study period and one class was moved to a new site and lost all previously enrolled students midway through the study.

Data were compiled at the end of the study period and analyzed using measures of central tendency, cross tabs and inferential statistics. All variables were analyzed using six categories of outcome of enrollment: GED completing students, students completing other goals, short-term noncontinuing students (enrolled less than 12 hours and not completing a goal, long term noncontinuing students (enrolled over 12 hours but not completing a goal) and stopouts (those who enrolled more than once during the study period without completing a goal). Post hoc analyses included chi squares, Tukey Follow-ups, a one way ANOVA, and a two tailed test of significance on correlation between entry level TABE tests and scores on GED tests. Qualitative analysis were conducted on notes made by the teachers in each of the student files, student autobiographies, and written comments to questions in the students own words.

FINDINGS

This section describes the general characteristics of the study sample, the breakdown of outcomes of enrollment, the degree to which strategies were implemented and the effect of the strategies on outcomes of enrollment. Additionally, post hoc analysis of some of the data is described, significant findings noted, and the results of qualitative data delineated. The students participating in this study are similar to those students described in other studies of ABE students (Bosma, 1988; Dirkx & Jha, 1992; Rachal, Jackson, & Leonard, 1987). The median age of all students in the study was 24.5 years. More women participated in the study than men (54.3%) and 70% of the group were white. Forty-six percent of students were employed (20.8% long-term noncontinuing students to 62.5% stopouts). Mean last grade attended for all students was 10.4 with a range of 10.0 to 11.3). TABE scores on math and language were similar for the sample (8.6 and 8.4) respectively) but TABE reading scores were considerably higher (9.9). Additionally, it was found that 33.6% of all students had been previously enrolled in ABE at least once.

OUTCOMES OF ENROLLMENT. Of 199 participants assigned to, or enrolled at, one of the strategy sites, 46 never came to a class and 153 students actually enrolled. Approximately 20.3% of all enrolled students completed a goal, 24.2% were continuing in the program at the end of the study period and 52.3% of the students had discontinued study. Approximately 13% of completing students completed a GED program, and nearly 6% completed another goal. Nearly 28% of all students left the program in less than twelve hours (short-term noncontinuing students), 18.3% were long-term noncontinuing students (over 12 hours in the program) and about 7% were students who enrolled more than once during the study period (stopouts). The comparable figures for the baseline period were: Completing students (22.0%), Continuing students (9.5%) and noncontinuing students (68.5%). Baseline figures for the more specific outcomes of enrollment were: short-term noncontinuing students (37%), long-term noncontinuing students (28.4%), stopouts (3.1%), GED completing students (17.3%) and students who complete another goal (4.6%)

EFFECT OF STRATEGIES ON OUTCOMES OF ENROLLMENT. Students were fairly evenly distributed across strategies; 35.5% OAFGS, 28.3% AF, and 36.1% OAF. Students who completed goals were more likely than either students who discontinued or those who were continuing to have participated in strategies. Ninety-three percent of completing students had participated in AF, 63% had attended orientation and 33% had set goals. Only 73% of

noncontinuing students (19%) participated in goal setting. It was hypothesized that as a result of implementation of specific classroom strategies, significantly fewer students would discontinue during the study period when compared to the base line study period. 1989-91. These data were initially analyzed by teacher across outcomes of enrollment. The rates of noncontinuation observed for each of the teachers during the study period were: 1) 33.3%; 2) 57.1%; 3) 64.7%; 4) 90.0%; 5) 66.7%; 6) 16.3%. The rates of noncontinuation during the baseline period were: 1) 68.9%; 2) 73.0%; 3) 57.2%; 4) 64.1%; 5) 68.9%; 6) 62.7%.

Individual rates of completion by teacher for the study period demonstrated a wide range: 1) 22.2%; 2) 20.0%; 3) 23.5%; 4) 0.0%; 5) 20.0%; 6) 25.0%). These completion rates compare with baseline figures for each teacher: 1) 19.8%; 2) 14.7%; 3) 35.3%; 4) 28.2%; 5) 24.2%; 6) 18.6%. Similarly rates of continuation for each teacher were calculated for both the periods. During the study the following rates by teacher were observed for continuation: 1) 44.4%; 2) 22.9%; 3) 11.8%; 4) 10.0%; 5) 13.3%; 6) 38.9%. The rates of continuation during the baseline period were: 1) 11.3%; 2) 12.3%; 3) 7.5%; 4) 7.7%; 5) 6.8%; 6) 18.6%. Chi squares for significance indicated that teachers one and six evidenced significant differences in outcomes of enrollment between the two years although teacher one failed to meet the percentage of cells meeting expected frequencies of 20%. Teacher six was the only teacher with a chi square stable enough to claim significance at $p < 05$. The three other instructors reflected negative movement in some of the outcome categories although all instructors showed an increase of continuing students during the study period.

We also looked at each of the three strategies to determine which of the strategies seemed to have the most impact on outcomes of enrollment. Chi square tests determined that strategies one (AF) and three (OAFGS) were significantly different with respect to outcomes of enrollment ($p < .05$) between the two periods. No significant differences ($p < .05$) were found for strategy two (OAF) when compared to base line data. Total hours spent in the ABE classroom were an indication of strategy effects and it was found that the median hours for all enrolled students (14.3 hours) represented an increase over the base line period (12.5 hours). Significantly, short-term noncontinuing students stayed longer in class (6.5 hours) than the baseline period (5.5 hours).

POST HOC ANALYSIS OF DATA. Post hoc analysis of data revealed several interesting findings relative to risk factors, previous difficulty in class and correlation between entry level TABE tests and comparable GED tests for those students completing a GED. The salience of a risk factor profile developed for use with the task force and later used in the assessment feedback component of the strategies was a particularly important finding. Teachers were asked to check appropriate risk factors for each student on the sheet and then to record total number of risk factors checked. The thirteen risk factors included such things as: started at Level 1A, did not finish an entry level test, were minority students, scored below 10 on the TABE reading test or below 8 on the TABE math test, income below $10,000, under 35 years of age, etc. Mean and median numbers of risk factors were examined and considerable differences among outcome of enrollment groups were found. For example, completing students had a median of 3 risk factors checked, continuing students checked a median of 5 risk factors and noncontinuing students checked a median of 4 risk factors. The observed differences were then subjected to significance testing using a one-way ANOVA. This test verified significant differences among the mean number of risk factors by outcome of enrollment ($F(2,145) = 3.6$, $p = .0298$) and a Tukey follow-up determined that the significant difference occurred between completing and noncontinuing students. Thus, it was found that the more risk factors checked on the list, the more likely students were to discontinue the program. Conversely, those with only a few risk factors were much more likely to complete goals.

Previous research (Bosma, 1988; Dirkx & Jha, 1992) suggests that there may be a correlation between entry level TABE scores and eventual GED scores. A post hoc test was able to confirm that relationship. For example, a correlation was found between entry level TABE math scores and eventual GED math scores on related tests using a two-tail significance test ($p = .016$). A similar correlation was found between the TABE language score and the GED writing score ($p = .021$). Finally, it was thought that previous difficulties in academic classes or behavior problems during other educational experiences might influence outcomes of enrollment. Chi square tests,

however, indicated the previous difficulties did not significantly influence outcomes of enrollment ($p < .05$).

Substantial qualitative data were obtained through implementation of these strategies. Analysis of these data provide additional insights into the nature of the strategy implemented. Each participating teacher was asked to make notes about anything they considered significant in student files. These teacher notes provided a rich source of information about implementation and reactions to each of the strategies. Comments on orientation could be classified into three general areas: 1) The benefits and difficulties of interacting with the students (e.g. "Very friendly, relaxed easy to visit with." "___was not communicative"); 2) Suggestions given by the teacher (e.g. "I suggested he check "job advancement" as well getting GED." "Asked about attending Goodrich at night as well as TRC days"; and 3) Experience with orientation. Students coming late seemed to be a particular problem, but teachers tried to accommodate the orientation during regular class time, illustrated in teachers' comment: "I did the session during class time." "Done individually--came late.

It was also possible to get a clearer picture of students taking or completing tests (or not) and information on how teachers handle those situations from reading the comments about assessment. Feedback comments included both student reactions and teacher reactions to interactions with students. Many of the comments recorded by the teachers indicated that students were excited and pleased with their testing results and still others gave indications of the ways in which results were presented to students. The goal setting component of the strategies appeared to be the most difficult to implement and fewer comments were recorded in this area than any other.

Additionally important data were found in miscellaneous notes in the student files. Teachers frequently commented on significant information they had learned from talking with students' either during orientation or assessment/feedback. For example: "Came for 5 minutes 2 more times--Always said he would start the next day." Actual comments written by students in response to questions about previous educational experiences and possible learning disabilities were particularly rich and give life to the people involved. Finally, the student autobiographies were a wonderful source of information for teachers and others who might want to understand the ABE student better.

DISCUSSION

Despite the best intentions of numerous studies of attrition in ABE, many questions regarding why ABE students leave before completing their goals remain unanswered. This study attempted to take a somewhat different approach to the problem by involving practitioners in interpreting data gathered from the baseline study period from their point of view and then using that data to develop and evaluate strategies they believed might be introduced with a minimum of difficulty and that might have the most immediate effect on attrition in their program. Using a task force of ABE practitioners to interpret prior relevant research and then use it for formulating a new research agenda worked well. It was an excellent example of researchers and practitioners working in a participatory manner to address concerns of mutual interest. Teachers were able to implement all strategies with minimum amounts of training and a small allocation of extra class time indicating that efforts to address retention problems need not involve large expenditures of time or money, although some commitment to both is necessary.

The effectiveness of involving teachers in the project was evidenced in the greater levels of success these two teachers had in not only implementing the strategies, but also in the outcomes which they experienced. A combination of all three strategies (OAFGS) implemented by teachers who were involved in all phases of the research project appeared to be the most successful although one other teacher implementing only one of the components (AF) was the most significantly successful in changing rates of completion over the two study periods. Analysis of practices at that site may be worthwhile in determining what might have set her apart from other participating teachers who were not involved in the task force. She was particularly conscientious about following protocols and keeping accurate student files.

It appears that the OAFGS and AF strategies were more effective than was the OAF strategy in affecting outcomes of enrollment. This may be a result of the involvement of the teachers in all aspects of the project as well as a more conscientious implementation possibly as a result of better understanding of expectations. A significantly larger proportion of students were continuing in the program at the end of the study at all sites studied and there were significantly fewer students who had dropped out of the program at the end of the study, thus indicating a possible connection between strategies implemented in the classroom and a lower rate of non-continuation. The longer students are in the program the more likely they are to complete goals. It would be interesting to ascertain if the observed higher rate of continuation resulted in more students completing goals.

The median number of hours spent in the program was 14.3 hours. This would indicate that many of our students attend class less than eight times. In fact, the short-term noncontinuing student is in class for less than 7 hours. These figures would tend to support making the first few hours in the program as meaningful as possible. Several studies have indicted that socialization to the classroom may be particularly important and the orientation strategy attempted to facilitate interactions not only with the teacher but also with other students. Additionally, since testing is one of the first encounters in the classroom, the way in which assessment/feedback is handled in class may be essential to getting students to the actual study phase of the class.

The problem of attrition needs to be addressed further by continued use of quantitative studies which assess effective of theoretically grounded strategies and by more qualitative studies. The dimensions and factors surrounding the issue of student attrition create an incredibly complex vortex of conceptual and practical issues. To develop a deeper understanding of attrition and what can be done about it, we will need a multi-dimensional research thrust. We have demonstrated that it is both possible and productive to involve practitioners in this research at a meaningful level. Future research should aim to involve students in this work as well. The comments of both teachers and students were particularly helpful in gaining a better understanding of the complex nature of the ABE teacher and it is possible that more attention to what the student has to say about themselves may be helpful in designing programs to more adequately meet their needs.

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ADULT LITERACY ASSESSMENT: CHALLENGING THE STATUS QUO

Gwendolyn Y. Turner

ABSTRACT

Meaningful evaluation and authentic assessment in adult literacy programs involve more than obtaining test scores and determining enrollment figures. Evaluation in adult literacy must be viewed as a learning process, not just a learning outcome. This essay discusses problems and issues inherent in adult literacy assessment and explores solutions that offer both adult educators and adult learners information about learner progress, instructional effectiveness, and program success.

INTRODUCTION

Adult Basic Education programs are required by federal law, the Adult Education Act of 1988, to provide standardized test data to evaluate the effectiveness of these literacy programs. However, adult literacy providers have to question whether formalized evaluations such as standardized test scores are the best indicators of literacy program effectiveness. It is important to realize that effectiveness of a literacy program can mean different things to different people involved in adult education. Test scores, enrollment trends, recruitment efforts and program cost-benefits may be sufficient evaluation factors for some program funders and administrators; however, literacy instructors want program evaluations to reflect what they have done well, and what they can do to improve instruction (Boraks, 1991).

While summative evaluations using standardized test data and enrollment trends may indicate some levels of effectiveness in literacy programs, several problems do occur with these forms of evaluation. This paper explores the issues surrounding adult literacy assessment and discusses the need to promote changes in both adult literacy assessment and program evaluation.

RATIONALE

Issues such as diverse literacy needs of learners, varying numbers of hours of instruction, quality of instruction, self-directedness and motivation of learners, and variety and format of standardized assessment instruments create special problems in literacy assessment. Many literacy programs are open-entry and open-exit to encourage participation. Even though this openness allows programs to respond to individual needs, it creates situations in which substantial numbers of participants are not tested or do not complete tests. Furthermore, the literacy needs and skills among program participants vary so widely that no single measure or battery could be used to measure all learners' progress accurately (Osterlind, Merz, Khaleel, 1991).

If assessment of adult literacy programs is to be meaningful, it must include a process that focuses on evaluation as a learning process and lead to program changes such as improved instruction. In order to do this, naturalistic evaluation which includes qualitative approaches will need to become the focus of literacy assessment instead of relying exclusively on the standardized format which has been so widely used.

ASSESSMENT AS A FOCUS FOR LEARNING

Questions concerning evaluation in adult literacy have been the focus of numerous studies (Ehringhaus, 1991; Lytle, & Wolfe, 1989; Padak & Padak, 1991). The major issues stem from an inability to define the concept of "literacy" and then to determine how literacy should be measured. Literacy has been defined in terms of (a) completion of grades in school, (b) ability to

read and write at an rudimentary level, (c) work-place reading skills, and (d) scores on a standardized reading test. The inability to satisfactorily measure functional literacy is a major consequence of this definitional ambiguity (Ehringhaus, 1990). If we can not define it, how do we measure it?

Evaluation should help learners and adult educators move toward their goals and certify that adult literacy programs are effective. Assessment needs to be a viable process that provides the learner with accurate information and helps adult educators make informed decisions about programs. Authentic assessment measures what learners can do, and predicts what learners will do, and helps to describe how they will use what they know (Rickard, Stiles, Posey, & Eguez, 1991). Successful evaluation also increases communication between teachers, students, administrators, policy makers and learning theorists (Ehringhaus, 1991).

Many of the problems in adult literacy assessment and program evaluation stem from a number of practices that occur frequently in adult literacy education. Lytle and Wolfe (1989) identify three practices that detract from overall improvement of adult literacy education: (a) evaluation of programs at the requestof funders or sponsors not adult educators and students, (b) dependence on test scores and enrollment figures as measures of success while not conducting entire program evaluations, and (c) internal evaluations in which knowledge is not shared across literacy programs. These researchers contend that assessment is linked to instruction and the curriculum; therefore, multiple methods should be used. Learner assessment and program evaluation should improve practice, contribute to the knowledge base, and demonstrate accountability. There is a need for more formative assessment of student progress. This assessment should include an ongoing, systematic collection of students' works representing the students' breadth of reading and writing experiences collected over time, and which would allow both the student and the teacher to evaluate progress (Valeri-Gold, Olson, Deming, 1992).

Formative measures of assessment require educators to be well-trained in observing and interpreting literacy behaviors and allow the learner greater participation in the assessment process. The use of informal assessment measures help adult educators to observe the linguistic, cognitive, as well as the affective literacy behaviors of adult learners. Informal assessment procedures are also viewed as more responsive to the adult's literacy strengths and weaknesses. Also, informal assessments allow the adult students a more active role in evaluation and makes assessment a collaborative information-gathering activity (Frager, 1991).

Multiple approaches to assessment are necessary to satisfy the informational needs of adult learners, adult educators, program developers, funders, and sponsors. Askov (1993) suggests that literacy assessments can be portrayed on a continuum ranging from informal qualitative assessments instruments such as portfolios, interviews, attitude assessments to more formal quantitative measures such as curriculum-based assessments, criterion-referenced tests, cloze tests and standardized tests. What is needed in adult literacy assessment is an ongoing, holistic approach which provides the most information about learner needs and successes.

Meaningful evaluation involves a process that leads to insights that can be used for improvement and change; therefore, evaluation should be viewed as a learning process in adult education rather than a judgmental product. *Meaningful evaluation is both quantitative and qualitative* (Patton, 1991).

Current assessment procedures (standardized tests) have not reflected the belief that students should take charge of their own learning and have consequently penalized many adult learners. Gilkenson (1990) states that judgments and assumptions based on standardized test scores actually can be false. Using case studies in assessing adult literacy performance, Gilkenson concluded that judgments based on standardized test scores may actually underestimate the literacy abilities of adults because these scores reflect a discreet set of skills independent of any specific social context. Standardized tests focus solely on the technical skills of reading. Traditional literacy assessment using these tests imply that literacy is an isolated activity and can be measured in isolation. Poor performance on a traditional test means that an adult who is not proficient in the discreet tasks are identified as having deficiencies; the focus is on weaknesses not on strengths.

CONCLUSIONS

Judgments and assumptions based upon standardized test scores have far-reaching effects because educators use them to make decisions about the curriculum, teaching practices, class placement, and even labeling of adults. The issues of assessment clearly reflect the way in which research and practices will be conducted in the future. As adult educators struggle to meet the literacy needs of adult learners, assessment will be a continuing debate. Adult educators who want to improve adult literacy programs may want to change their approaches to literacy assessment and program evaluation. The following guidelines have been offered for improving adult literacy program evaluation:

1. Base evaluation on the program's stated goals.
2. Make the evaluation comprehensive.
3. Make the evaluation systematic (not anecdotal).
4. Use a variety of assessment forms, both qualitative and quantitative.
5. Review the evaluation results in terms of the three categories of program effectiveness: personal factors, programmatic factors, external factors.
6. Use evaluation data to identify parts of the program that need strengthening. (Padak & Padak, 1991, pg. 376).

There is a need for more qualitative research and naturalistic evaluations in adult education, Merriam (1989) contends that qualitative research is coming of age in education, and it has led to improvements in the knowledge base of adult education and to a better understanding of adult illiterates. Evaluation should be integrated, interdependent, and focused on obtaining both the adult learner's and the program's goals. Diekhoff (1988) contends that adult literacy programs have failed to produce the quality of life improvements in reading ability because we have not faced up to the short-comings in our program evaluations. If assessment of adult literacy programs is to be meaningful, it must include a process that focuses on evaluation as a learning process.

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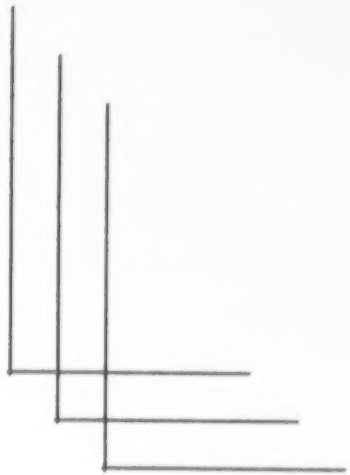

Programming

PROGRAMMING

In reviewing the presentations and literature on programming and planning in adult, continuing, and community education, one is struck by the persuasiveness of program planning in the literature. Planning (or programming) is defined by Sork and Caffarella (1989) as a decision making process and a set of related activities that produce educational program design specifications for one or more adult learner p. 233). A planning model is described as a set of steps which, when completed, produce the design and outcome specifications for a systematic instructional activity (Sork & Buskey, 1986). The problem and controversy arises when reconciling the normative, linear planning models (how one should plan) with the descriptive planning models (how it is actually done). In fact, most adult educators will acknowledge that, although there may be order to their approach to planning, there is rarely order to the process itself (Simpson, 1982). This is, of course, not a new problem in programming as Sork and Buskey pointed out in 1978, most of the literature fails to recognize that groups or teams will be involved in the design and planning of programs and fails to explore the relevant roles of the various actors in the planning process (p. 93).

In addition, this frustration permeates many, if not all phases of program planning. For instance, there appears to be confusion over the term need (Sork & Caffarella, 1989), and indeed some controversy as to the feasibility of conducting needs assessments at all. Additionally, in discussing program objectives, some adult educators are concluding that by defining them in behavioral or empirical terms (as is suggested in most planning models), we are limiting the learners and essentially ignoring all other forms or learning. There is also some questioning among practitioners regarding program evaluation.

Of the nine papers on programming, all address the issues bridging research to practice and each one examines various aspects of programming relating to the different phases of planning as well as to salient issues within programming. Areas not usually addressed within normative, linear models are explored in two papers. R. D. Safrit highlights the question of how organizational values impact strategic planning. The paper offers a process through which adult educators may develop methodologies to identify organizational values and to describe holistic organizational value systems for the adult educational organization. Additionally, J.M. Jones, R. D. Safrit, and N. L. Conklin researched the organizational values of two extension organizations. They examined the impact of those values in making organizational decisions and in setting future goals.

The actual activities of program planners as opposed to what the theory contends they do is explored in three papers. P.M. Boer and T.J. Ellis developed a descriptive model which depicts four qualitatively different kinds or programming activities. The interactive relationships between these four dimensions are illustrated in the paper. T.D. Laswell and J.M. Dirkx investigated how multiple perspectives or differing beliefs about what constitutes quality can best be addressed within program planning and renewal. They used experiences with a two year, state wide program evaluation in Adult Basic Education as a case example and determined that multiple perspectives are a pervasive reality, yet largely unacknowledged or accounted for within adult education program planning. R.M. Cervero and A.L. Wilson attempted to demonstrate that programs are produced by people with multiple interests, working in specific institutional contexts that effect the content and form of programs. How planning can be constrained because of power issues which place boundaries on planners and a conceptual scheme for the interpretation of power relations within institutional contexts is examined in the paper.

Two of the studies consider the concept of how, when, and if change is adopted as a result of programming. T.J. Rollins studied the nature and strength of the relationships between fifteen generalizations derived from Rogers and Shoemaker's generalizations about innovativeness. Farm operators perceptions are examined regarding their own innovativeness and they are classified according to the Rogers and Shoemaker generalizations. M.K. Turner and J.M. Dirkx studied the efficacy of a commitment to change strategy as a means of fostering intended change in the practices of adult educators. The presentation emphasizes the importance of encouraging adoption decisions early in the knowledge acquisition process through a procedure that facilitates an unlearning of current normative orientations.

In the remaining two papers, specific training issues within the programming field are explored. E. Adekunle-Wilson and L.G. Martin researched and compared various types of parent education organizations. Insights are provided into the nature of parent education and the means to maximize individual agency's efforts in providing effective parent education to families. C. Penrose and J. Roher explored the concepts of education for public or private good and their relationship to the decision to collect user fees for various extension programs.

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IMPROVING PARENT EDUCATION CAPACITY

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ABSTRACT

This research identified four characteristics of parent education agencies which were found to differentiate them in terms of their "direct" and "indirect" delivery of services. These characteristics were employed in a cluster analysis to produce a five-group typology of the different types of parent education agencies in Milwaukee County, Wisconsin. The typology was used to identify the differences that exist in the capacity development needs among the different types of agencies

INTRODUCTION

Nationally, fewer than half of the parents in the U.S. read to their children regularly, take them to visit libraries or participate in other social-cognitive development activities. On the contrary, glaring headlines in local and national newspapers chronicle the plight of children who have suffered horrible abuses and negligent behavior at the hands of those who are expected to protect and nurture them. For example, recently in the city of Milwaukee, a crying infant was shaken to death by a frustrated father, and an eight-year-old child was locked in a bathroom without food or clothes for two days while the mother and her boyfriend went to a party. Although the federal government provides less than five-percent of its annual budget for child development programs, it has issued in its America 2000 report a challenge for children's educational development. In response, Start Smart Milwaukee (SSM), a coalition of business, industry, social service, and education leaders was organized to prepare Milwaukee's children to meet the challenge.

The knowledge-base of parents is pivotal to the quality of parents' practices and involvement. In this sense, parent education is critically important to the child development, survival, and achievement efforts of a community. Therefore, a major initiative of SSM is the Quality Parent Education Task Force. This task force commissioned a county-wide survey of all available parent education providers to delineate the type and extent of their services, their clientele needs and service gaps.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study had three major objectives: (1) to explore the underlying dimensions of parent education agencies as these related to the delivery of either "direct" or "indirect" services to parents,(2) to develop a means of understanding differences among groups of agencies through the construction of a typology based upon the identified dimensions, and (3) identify the differences in the capacity development needs that exists among the different types of agencies. Given the paucity of research available on the characteristics and attributes of parent education organizations, an exploratory approach to the three research objectives was deemed appropriate.

METHODOLOGY

A descriptive survey research design was utilized to pursue the aforementioned research objectives. A four-page survey was mailed to parent educators and(or) managers of 400 Human Service Organizations in Milwaukee County. Although a total of 102 agencies returned surveys, 79 of them provided usable responses. A total of 100 responded that they did not provide PE services. The 20-question survey questionnaire included a majority of open-ended and multiple-choice questions and several closed item responses.

Exploratory discriminant analysis was used to accomplish the first research objective, the identification of underlying dimensions of organizational characteristics associated with direct and indirect methods of service delivery. Direct service delivery was defined as parent education that is expected, curriculum-based, and provided systematically on-site via personal contact by the organization's staff. In indirect service delivery, parent information is not systematic, often non-

curriculum-based, and provided via diverse services of referrals to other departments or agencies, staffs' spontaneous information to parents, and the coordination of outside resources or media. A total of twenty one variables were used in the discriminant analysis to identify the limited number of variables that would provide the greatest predictive value in identifying those agencies with either direct or indirect services. The discriminant analysis selected four variables as the most predictive: agency emphasis (or purpose), agency type (private, public, or non-profit), curriculum type, and the existence of professional staff. Employing these variables, the discriminant analysis correctly classified 92.5% of the agencies.

The statistical technique used to address the second research objective was disjoint cluster analysis. The four variables identified in the discriminant analysis were used as the clustering variable in a series of analyses that yielded solutions with two through seven clusters. A solution was sought that would yield the largest number of meaningful groups agencies. The pattern of responses for each cluster solution was assessed as the measure of the interpretability of the solution. Size of individual clusters was also taken into consideration as an indication of the clusters' external validity. The typology represented by the final cluster solution was described in terms of the following agency characteristics: Staff, support services, Parents' Race, Parents' Income, Target Population served, number of Clients and Staff, Budget Size, Costs per Client, and Staff per Client. The final research objective was addressed by using the typology to identify the differences that exist in the capacity development needs of the different types of agencies.

FINDINGS

CLUSTER SOLUTION

In preliminary analyses, two agencies consistently appeared as outliers or a separate cluster. Following Norusis' (1985) advice, these cases were deleted from the sample. The N for the final analysis accordingly became 77.

A five cluster solution was the most satisfactory in terms of the criteria of interpretability described above. Solutions with smaller numbers of clusters made less useful contributions to an understanding of differences among the agencies. The five cluster solution, including summary statistics on defining variables, is presented in Table 1. The most salient differences among the groups are described below.

Type 1. This group is the smallest (8% of the sample). It was differentiated from the other groups in the sample via its disproportionately high composition of agencies which have professional staff, agencies with diverse purposes, and private agencies. Although two other groups share the characteristics of very high usage of professional staff and diverse agency emphasis, this group contained all of the "private" agencies in the sample.

Type 2. The characteristics of this group, due to its disproportionate size (55% of the sample), are representative of the total sample. However, the group was disproportionately high in its composition of health agencies, other agencies with diverse purposes, and non-profit agencies.

Type 3. This group, 14% of the sample, was characterized by its "direct" mode of service delivery to parents, and its disproportionately high representation of non-profit "education" and "social service" agencies.

Type 4. This group comprises 10% of the sample and is dominated by nonprofit and public agencies which emphasize both educational and social services purposes. It is over-represented by agencies which produce their own curricula, however it is near the norm in its use of indirect delivery of services.

Type 5. This group, 13% of the sample, is also comprised of both non-profit and public agencies which emphasize social services and education. It is highly over-represented by agencies which employ professional staff and utilize both agency and commercially produced curricula. It also has a high percentage of agencies that utilize an indirect mode of service delivery.

Table 1.
Results of Cluster Analysis: Summary Statistics

Variable	Total Sample	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5
N % of Sample	77 (100)	6 (8.0)	42 (55.0)	11 (14.0)	8 (10.0)	10 (13.0)
Prof. Staff	61 (79.2)	6 (100.0)	31 (73.8)	8 (72.7)	6 (75.0)	10 (100.0)
Agency Emphasis	Educ. 14 (18.2) Soc.Serv 12 (15.6) Health 11 (14.3) Other* 36 (46.8)	Other* 6 (100.0)	Other* 30 (71.4) Health 11 (26.2) Soc.Serv 1 (2.4)	Educ. 8 72.7) Soc.Serv 3 (27.3)	Educ. 6 (75.0) Soc.Serv 2 (25.0)	Educ. 4 (40.0) Soc.Ser 6 (60.0)
Agency Type	NonProf 68 (88.3) Private 5 (6.5) Public 3 (3.8) No Resp 1 (1.3)	Private 5 (83.0) No Resp 1 (16.7)	NonProf 42 (100.0)	NonProf 11 (100.0)	NonProf 6 (75.0) Public 2 (25.0)	NonProf 9 (90.0) Public 1 (10.0)
Curriculum Type	Agency 18 (23.4) Commerc. 12 (15.6) Both 25 (32.5) No Resp. 22 (28.6)	Agency 2 (33.3) Commerc. 1 (16.7) Both 2 (33.3) No Resp 1 (16.7)	Agency 10 (23.8) Commerc 4 (9.5) Both 12 (28.6) No Resp 16 (38.1)	Agency 3 (27.3) Commerc 4 (36.4) Both 4 (36.4)	Agency 3 (37.5) No Resp 5 (62.5)	Commerc 3 (30.0) Both 7 (70.0)
Delivery Mode	Indirect 51 (66.2) Direct 26 (33.8)	Indirect 4 (66.7) Direct 2 (33.3)	Indirect 31 (73.8) Direct 11 (26.2)	Indirect 2 (18.2) Direct 9 (81.8)	Indirect 6 (75.0) Direct 2 (25.0)	Indirect 8 (80.0) Direct 2 (20.0)

*Other indicates a group of agencies with divergent purposes.

Table 2.

Agency Characteristics by Clusters

Variable	Total Sample	Clusters 1	2	3	4	5
N % of Sample	77 (100.0)	6 (8.0)	42 (55.0)	11 14.0)	8 (10.0)	10 (13.0)
Staff:	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Parprof	22 29	2 33	12 29	- -	3 38	5 50
Certif.	25 32	4 67	17 40	1 9	- --	3 30
LifeExp	32 42	3 50	20 48	1 9	2 25	6 60
Full Time	33 43	3 50	19 45	2 18	3 38	6 60
Part-Time	38 49	4 67	21 50	3 27	3 38	7 70
Volunteer	33 43	1 17	22 52	1 9	4 50	5 50
Suppt Serv	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Transp.	18 23	1 17	8 19	2 18	2 25	5 50
ChilCar	29 38	2 33	16 38	4 36	2 25	5 50
Stipend	4 5	- --	3 7	1 9	- --	- --
Refres	35 45	1 17	21 50	3 27	3 38	7 70
Other	17 22	2 33	10 24	4 36	- --	1 10
Parent Race	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Afri-Am	58 75	5 83	31 74	7 64	8 100	7 70
Euro-Am	54 70	5 83	29 69	7 64	8 100	5 50
Native-Am	28 36	4 67	12 29	3 27	5 63	4 40
Asian-Am	27 35	3 50	14 33	3 27	5 63	2 20
Hispan-AM	43 56	4 67	21 50	5 45	6 75	7 70
Other	12 16	1 17	6 14	1 9	3 38	1 10
Parnt Incom	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
AFDC	54 70	5 83	27 64	5 45	8 100	9 90
Low	62 81	5 83	33 79	8 73	8 100	8 80
Middle	44 57	4 67	24 57	7 64	4 50	5 50
High	25 32	3 50	11 26	5 45	4 50	2 20
TargPop	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %
Par/Tod	41 53	4 67	21 50	5 45	5 63	6 60
General	41 53	3 50	22 52	8 73	2 25	6 60
Singlemom	41 53	4 67	18 43	7 64	5 63	7 70
PrNewBrn	39 51	3 50	20 48	6 55	4 50	6 60
WorkPar	35 45	2 33	17 40	7 64	4 50	5 50
PrSchCld	32 42	3 50	15 36	5 45	3 38	6 60
Par/Teen	31 40	4 67	16 38	3 27	3 38	5 50
Mean Clients (SD)		781.6 (1520.3)	5,924.3 (18960.9)	935.7 (954.2)	1,602.2 (1978.4)	493.1 (695.9)
Mean Staff Size (SD)		14.6 (20.4)	125.2 (457.3)	31.3 (54.2)	24.3 (21.5)	29.9 (46.2)
Mean Budget Size (SD)		$263,000.00	$836,686.8 (2337252.6)	$472,575.0 (852,579.8)	$617,000.0 (453,548.2)	$957,333.3 (1,986,156.8)
Costs/Clie		$336.5	$141.2	$505.0	$385.1	$1,941.5
Staff/Clie		53.5	47.3	29.9	65.9	16.

Table 3.
Parent Education Capacity Development For Agencies

Variable	Total Sample		Clusters 1		2		3		4		5	
N	77		6		42		11		8		10	
% of Sample	(100)		(8.0)		(55.0)		(14.0)		(10.0)		(13.0)	
InsevProv	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
PerAwarn	53	69	5	83	26	62	10	91	5	63	7	70
Skill bldg	41	53	4	67	21	50	4	36	5	63	7	70
Credit	6	8	-	--	4	10	-	--	2	25	-	--
Noncredt	13	17	1	17	6	14	3	27	1	13	2	20
Degree	2	3	-	--	1	2	1	9	-	--	-	--
Certif	11	14	1	17	6	14	1	9	2	25	1	10
EnhanServ	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Onestop	27	35	1	17	15	36	4	36	1	13	6	60
Quainfro	33	43	3	50	18	43	6	55	3	38	3	30
Mo/QrCal	51	66	4	67	29	69	6	55	6	75	6	60
CounDir	46	60	4	67	24	57	9	82	3	38	6	60
SupNetwk	22	29	3	50	12	29	3	27	2	25	2	20
CrProDev	15	19	1	17	12	29	2	18	-	--	-	--
NonCrPDv	19	25	4	67	8	19	4	36	-	--	3	30
ResNeed	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
ParCldIn	25	32	5	83	12	29	2	18	2	25	4	40
LLReadMt	22	29	2	33	11	26	2	18	3	38	4	40
RacSenMt	28	36	1	17	15	36	6	55	3	38	3	30
SexSenMt	16	21	2	33	8	19	3	27	1	13	2	20
ProfDev	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
MarkRecr	34	44	3	50	19	45	5	45	2	25	5	50
MulRacMt	17	22	1	17	12	29	-	--	2	25	2	20
PropWrit	29	38	1	17	18	43	4	36	3	38	3	30
UsingDem	24	31	1	17	17	40	2	18	2	25	2	20
EvalAudi	17	22	1	17	12	29	3	27	1	13	-	--
CleaHous	20	26	1	17	13	31	2	18	3	38	1	10
	29	38	4	67	14	33	4	36	2	25	5	50

Table 2. provides a description of the agency characteristics of the organizations located in each cluster. These data indicated that Type 1 agencies were most highly represented among agencies with certified and part-time staff, which provide services to Native Americans, Middle and High-Income populations, Parents with Toddlers, and Parents with Teens. It averaged the fewest number of staff and the lowest average budget. Type 2 agencies were the most over-represented among agencies with volunteer staff. They also averaged the lowest "amount spent per client", and averaged the highest number of Staff and Clients. Type 3 agencies were the most over-represented among agencies which serve a "general population" and "working parents". Type 4 agencies were the most over-represented among agencies which serve African Americans, European Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, and other ethnic populations. They were also the most dominant in providing services to AFDC recipients and Low-Income parents. These agencies had the highest number of Staff Per Client. Type 5 agencies were over-represented among those agencies employing both full- and part-time staff, paraprofessional staff, and staff with life experiences. It has the largest average Budget Size and serves the smallest number of Clients. Therefore, these agencies spend the highest Amount Per Client, and have the smallest number of Clients per Staff. Group 5 is also over-represented in the number and types of support services offered: Transportation, Child Care, and Refreshments. It is over-represented in its delivery of services to Single Mothers and parents with Pre School Children.

Table 3. suggests that the majority of the agencies in the sample currently provide Personal Awareness and Skill Building training to their staffs. The most popular options for agency enhancements of PE activities are a Monthly or Quarterly Calendar (especially for Type 4), a County-Wide Directory of PE agencies (especially for Type 3), and quarterly information (particularly for Type 3 agencies). The most important service development needs for the agencies were for Racially Sensitive Materials and activities for Parent-Child Interactions. Agency staff development needs were identified for four areas: Staff Development, using Multi-Racial Material, Developing a Clearing House, and Proposal Writing

CONCLUSION

This research provides insight into: the nature of parent education as practiced in Milwaukee County, the means to maximize each agency's individual and collaborative efforts, and more effective and efficient delivery of services to parents and children. The framework created from this research could serve as a model for other counties in the Mid-West. It can assist them to identify the different types of PE organizations within their borders and to determine the strengths and weaknesses associated with each type of organization. Therefore, this study has significant implications for PE organizations to expand their service capacities so that they can keep pace with the rapidly increasing crisis needs of parents and children.

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PROGRAM PLANNING IN THE FOURTH DIMENSION
WHAT DO PROGRAM PLANNERS REALLY DO?

Patricia M. Boer & Timothy J. Ellis

ABSTRACT

Recent reviews of program planning literature in the field of Adult Education criticize existing literature for a general and continued adherence to Tyler's linear, classical viewpoint of program planning, and for presenting primarily "normative" rather than "descriptive" models of planning practice. This paper provides a critical overview of recent attempts by planners and researchers to explore alternative planning viewpoints that more adequately account for complex challenges of planning practice. The paper first reviews existing planning literature through the classification lens of three major viewpoints: the classical, naturalistic, and critical. This resource base together with several recent descriptive accounts of program planning are then integrated to form a four dimensional planning model depicting four qualitatively different kinds of things that planners do. Relationships between dimensions of planning, competencies related to each dimension, and implications of the model for practice and research are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The last 15 years have witnessed an impressive proliferation of literature on program planning in the field of Adult Education. Planning models have been developed for numerous adult education contexts (Knowles, 1950; 1980; Houle, 1972; Boyle, 1981; Boone, 1985), influenced by a variety of competing philosophical perspectives (Kowalski, 1987; McNeil, 1981), and driven by an increasingly broad range of programmatic purposes and rationales (Langenbach, 1988). Despite this burgeoning literature, however, Sork & Buskey (1986), Langenbach (1988), Sork & Caffarella (1989), and most recently Cervero & Wilson (in press), have criticized existing program planning literature for two reasons: first, for a general and continued adherence to Tyler's (1949) linear, decision-making framework of program planning (often referred to as the "classical perspective"), and second, for presenting primarily "normative" models suggesting how planning "ought" to be done, rather than "descriptive" models depicting what planners "really do" in practice. While these normative/prescriptive models can be valuable to assist planners to develop an idealized picture of how planning might be done, their limitation becomes apparent when program planners are confronted with the messy, real world of planning practice.

In the real world of planning practice, planners often face situational complexities that seem to defy any kind of systematization. Planners often are confronted with persistent and conflicting interests in politically charged institutional environments. Planners also must process ethical dilemmas and ambiguities which frequently hold potentially destructive outcomes for "real persons" including the disadvantaged and oppressed. Linear model's with nicely systematized steps, unfortunately, provide little help to planners faced with these complex challenges.

Noting the limitations of the Tylerian framework to meet many complex challenges of planning practice, a number of planners and researchers have attempted in varying ways to develop alternative planning viewpoints which more adequately account for components of what program planners really do in practice (Houle, 1972; Brookfield, 1986; Walker, 1971; Reid, 1979; Friere, 1970; Forester, 1989; Hart, 1989; Cervero & Wilson, in press). This paper provides a critical overview of these alternative viewpoints of what program planners really do. The paper first reviews current planning literature through the classification lens of three major planning viewpoints: classical, naturalistic, and critical. This resource base is then integrated with recent descriptive accounts of planning practice to form a four dimensional model depicting four qualitatively different kinds of things that program planners do. Finally, a case example illustrates how the model can be used to meaningfully "make sense" of the messy, complex, indeterminate, politically and ethically charged world of planning practice.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The various program planning models in Adult Education literature, can be classified according to three major viewpoints: the classical, generally associated with Tyler (1949); the naturalistic, generally represented by Houle (1972); and the critical represented by Friere (1970) and Forester (1989). Key players associated with each of these viewpoints, assumptions on which these perspectives are based, and strengths and limitations of the models associated with each of these perspectives are noted. Following these analyses, perspectives which do not fall under any of the three viewpoints are examined which imply the need for a fourth dimension of planning practice.

THE CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT

The classical viewpoint, generally associated with Tyler (1949), envisions a linear program planning process, which assumes that if you follow the steps or discover the "right" things to do you will produce an effective program. The classical viewpoint applies research findings and principles to practice. The following are five assumptions upon which the classical model is based:

1. An educational program should be based on the needs of learners;
2. It is possible to determine the needs of learners from such sources as: contemporary life, research on learners, and subject-matter specialists;
3. Knowledge is external to the learner (out there) hence the need for subject matter specialists;
4. Objectives are the basis for organizing learning experiences;
5. Curriculum development is a step wise process (Apps, 1980).

In their article "A Descriptive and Evaluative Analysis of Program Planning Literature, 1950-1983," Sork and Buskey note that program planning in adult education continues to be influenced by Tyler's (1949) four step decision-making framework. They observe that in some fashion most current models incorporate Tyler's four questions: 1) what are the purposes to be attained, 2) what are the educational experiences to attain the purposes, 3) what are the methods, and 4) how can the program be evaluated to see if purposes were achieved. Consistent with Tyler's view of program planning as a linear, decision-making framework, Sork and Caffarella (1989) identify six program planning steps: analyze planning context and client system, (2) assess needs, (3) develop program objectives, (4) formulate instructional plans, (5) formulate administrative plan, and (6) design a program evaluation plan" (p. 234).

Other well known planning models in Adult Education that are consistent with the classical viewpoint include: extension work by Beal, Blount, Powers & Johnson (1966), adult education/community development by Boone, Dolan & Shearon (1971), continuing education programming by Boyle (1981), Knowles' (1970; 1980) andragogical model, and Beder's (1986) explicitly market-driven planning approach.

THE NATURALISTIC VIEWPOINT

Despite the logical appeal and linear simplicity of the classical perspective of program planning, a number of theorists argue that the classical perspective of program planning inadequately represents the complexity of program planning practice. In an attempt to remedy this void, Walker (1971), Reid (1979), Houle (1972) and Brookfield (1986) articulate an alternative viewpoint, the naturalistic, which recognizes that the realities of practice do not necessarily follow a set of steps or universal principles and that the realities of shifting priorities vary. Houle (1972), for example, notes that planners are real people making choices among competing alternatives. He states that planners make judgments in a specific context because "an educational design is a complex of interacting elements . . " (p. 39), and the quality of program planning ". . . depends in large measure upon the wisdom and competence of the person making the choices." While this viewpoint acknowledges the importance of procedural tasks such as determining objectives, developing learning experiences, and evaluating outcomes, it chooses to highlight other competencies needed by planners including: formulation of decision points, devising alternative choices, considering arguments, and choosing and justifying the most defensible alternative.

THE CRITICAL VIEWPOINT

The critical viewpoint, advocated by Friere (1970), Hart (1989) and Forester (1989), provides a third perspective of what program planners do. This view, in contrast to the classical and naturalistic perspectives, advocates a specific ethical and political agenda. It is concerned with social and political emancipation. Griffin (1983) and Blundell (1992) also favor this viewpoint and the need to develop clear ethical standards to guide planners. The critical viewpoint holds in common with the naturalistic perspective the element of practical problem-solving deliberation and a rejection of the neat orderly steps and linear sequence of the classical approach. However, unlike either the classical or naturalistic approaches, the critical perspective introduces the political component of "strategic negotiation." (Forester, 1989, p. 164). This political element brings with it an explicit acknowledgment of the non-neutral role of the planner's values in the decision-making/planning/negotiative process. For the critical viewpoint, planning is an explicitly political activity which inevitably links issues of ethics and politics in a world of competing values (Forester, 1989, p. 22). The critical viewpoint holds that the planner has an ethical responsibility to work for social and political emancipation of the disadvantaged and oppressed. The planner is held responsible to form value positions and to act strategically to make the world a better place.

INTEGRATIVE AND INTERACTIONIST PERSPECTIVES

Research on the question, "what do program planners really do?" has recently produced several descriptive and integrative alternatives to the polarized classical, naturalistic and critical perspectives of planning practice. Cervero and Wilson (in press) observe that the classical, naturalistic, and critical viewpoints privilege either the planner as shaper of the planning situation (classical, naturalistic), or the controlling power of the planning environment (critical). Cervero and Wilson offer as an alternative a perspective that integrates elements from each of the three viewpoints, and further extends them by articulating the interactive nature of planning practice--planner and planning context continually influencing each other. Based upon case analyses in three organizational settings, Cervero and Wilson describe planning as a social activity, consisting of ongoing negotiations of multiple interests and judgments on technical, political and ethical levels.

Kouzes and Posner's (1992) research on ethical leadership also extends the classical, naturalistic, and critical viewpoints highlighting the roles of such affective qualities as vision, inspiration, passion, commitment, compassion, willingness to be the first to risk and suffer, sensitivity, understanding, honesty, and integrity for effective leadership.

THE BOER-ELLIS PROGRAM PLANNING MODEL

Building upon the three viewpoints of the classical, naturalistic, and critical, perspectives of Cervero and Wilson (in press), and Kouzes and Posner (1992), together with self-reflection by the authors on the question, "what do we as program planners really do?" lead the authors to see the need for a fourth "inspirational" dimension of planning practice. This fourth dimension builds on the other three, starting with technical skills, roles, needs, aptitudes, perspectives and competencies, and then integrates the next level of practical deliberation, judgments and decision-making as a way to prepare for the third level of strategic negotiations advocated by Forester (1989) and Cervero and Wilson (in press). Noting that leadership qualities of creative envisioning, and inspiration are missing from the other three dimensions, the Boer-Ellis concept of planning for curriculum development suggests a non-linear, multi-dimensional planning model that builds upon, integrates, and expands existing viewpoints (See Figures 1 and 2 below).

The Qualitative Dimensions of Planning (QDOP) Model portrays four qualitatively different kinds of things that planners do, or skill areas that planners need: procedural/technical skills (application), situational/adaptational skills (deliberation), ethical/political skills (negotiation), and creative visionary leadership skills (inspiration). The Interactive Dimensions of Planning (IDOP) Model, then illustrates interactive relationships between these four dimensions of planning practice.

APPLICATION: A CASE EXAMPLE

The following case study illustrates how the Interactive Dimensions of Planning (IDOP) Model can be used to understand what really happens in program planning practice. It demonstrates, too, how the Qualitative Dimensions of Planning (QDOP) Model can be a tool for understanding and answering the question: "What do program planners really do?"

CASE STUDY: THE ADDICTIONS COUNSELING CERTIFICATE PROGRAM (ACCP)

As a national award winning certificate program, the ACCP helps meet the educational requirements for certification by the Indiana Counselors' Association on Alcohol and Drug Abuse (ICAADA). It offers Continuing Education Credits (CEUS), and includes 180 hours of course work (7 core courses, 20 contact hours each) plus two electives and a Supervised Practicum of 330 hours. Prior to ACCP, peer and professional counselors in Indianapolis, Indiana, needed to travel out of town for training in addiction counseling. In response to this training gap, the program planner envisioned a Certification Program (The Inspirational Dimension). To test her "inspiration" she communicated her ideas to local counselors. Based on their enthusiasm, she utilized her technical skills to outline the curriculum (The Application Dimension).

Next she approached the State Certification Agency for Agency endorsement of the program. The endorsement process required her to adapt to contextual changes and to justify numerous decisions made throughout the curriculum phase in the certificate's program development (The Deliberation Dimension).

As a political strategy, she invited representatives from the community's alcohol and drug rehabilitation centers to serve on an advisory board. These representatives became important stakeholders. Since their agencies initially were asked to endorse the program by approving its curriculum and providing sites for the practicum experience, the representatives were expected to participate in the program's evaluation plan. They also were invited to serve as instructors and refer students to the classes. Once formed, the Advisory Board met three times a year for self-reflection and discussion about the program's progress. The Board's process of self-reflection and discussion about course content and community outreach sought to bring positive change in the life of the community as well as the certificate program itself (The Negotiation Dimension).

The push to make the ACCP materialize and the drive to enhance and sustain it by updating course offerings responsive to agency and community needs, was inspired by the leadership of the program planner and her passion to improve the quality of life for individuals and professionals in the community through quality programs (The Inspiration Dimension). The success of this endeavor was demonstrated when the program won the 1990 ACHE (Association of Continuing Higher Education) Distinguished Program Award for Non-Credit Programs. The current enrollment figures and corresponding positive evaluations from the students continue to testify to the program's relevance.

CONCLUSION

The four dimensional model of program planning model presented in this paper is an attempt to categorize planning actions and skills in a manner that can help planners to make sense of messy, indeterminate planning situations. However, no single model can account for all the complex and varied components of planning practice. For example, planners may not always be able to distinguish clearly between different dimensions of the Boer-Ellis Model. In reality, the four dimensions may frequently overlap. Openness and flexibility of the Deliberation Dimension is an important ingredient for effective negotiation. Creative/visionary leadership builds upon the assumption of the critical to act strategically and politically to make the world a more just and equitable place. Competent planning at the Visionary Leadership, Negotiation, and Deliberation levels all necessitate that planners have basic technical and procedural planning skills. The purpose of the Boer-Ellis model is not to isolate areas of planning practice for narrow exclusionary analysis, but rather to group planning behaviors in a way that can meaningfully sort out and make sense of the dynamic, interactive complexity of real planning situations.

DIMENSIONS OF PLANNING MODELS

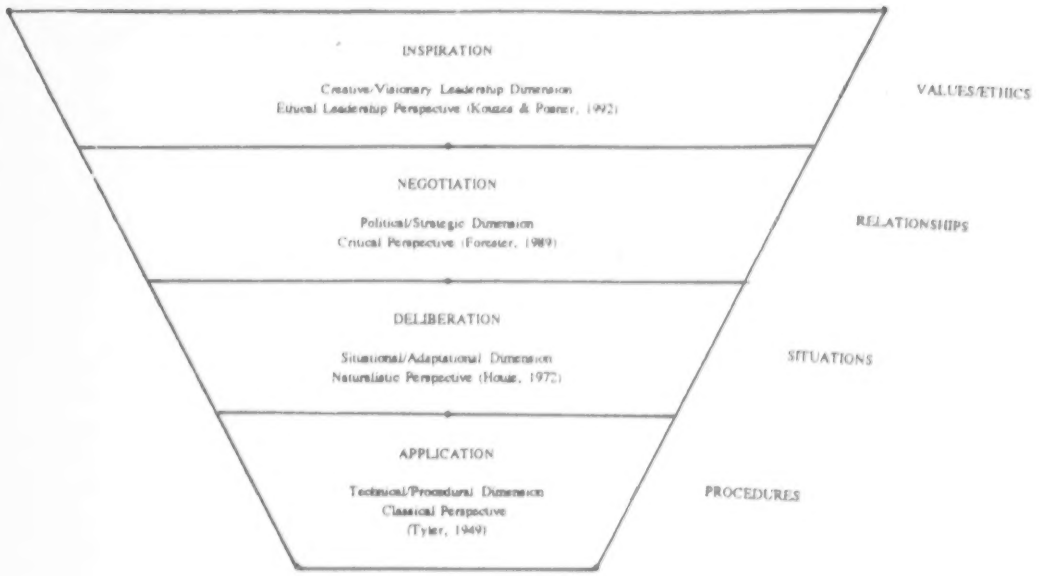

Figure 1. Qualitative Dimensions of Planning (QDOP) Model.

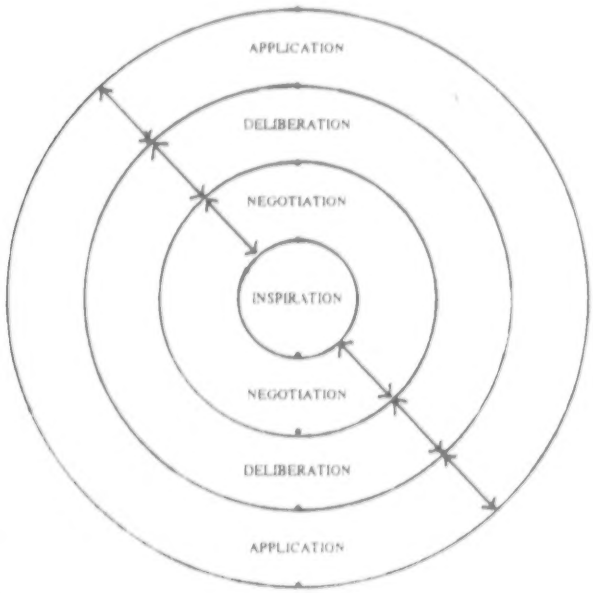

Figure 2. Interactive Dimensions of Planning (IDOP) Model

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INTERESTS, POWER, AND RESPONSIBILITY IN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM PLANNING

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ABSTRACT

This paper is our attempt to make sense of program planning practice in a way that honors both its situationally-specific character as well as its fundamentally normative basis. Consequently, the purpose of the paper is to offer a theory that explains how program planners can anticipate structural relations of power in which they must necessarily act and then respond in ways that nurture, though hardly ensure, a substantively democratic planning process. We hope to enlarge adult educators' sense of responsibility and, at the same time, offer them practical guides for seeing the world in which these responsibilities must necessarily be carried out.

INTRODUCTION

Adult educators' planning practice matters because the educational programs they construct will make the world a different place. Therefore, the central question facing us as adult educators responsible for planning educational programs for adults is how to improve our practice. But in order to improve our planning practice, an important question presents itself: What do adult education program planners really do? We argue in this paper that program planning is a social activity in which planners negotiate personal and organizational interests in constructing educational programs for adults. To develop this claim, in the first part of the paper we briefly review three common accounts of what planners do in order to elaborate on our negotiation theme. After describing the methodology of three case studies of planning practice and presenting briefly the results of those studies, we conclude with a discussion of how planning has to be understood as occurring in complex sets of personal, organizational, and social relations of power among people who may have similar, differing, or competing sets of interests regarding the format and content of a program. The purpose of this paper is to propose a theory of program planning in order that planners, by better understanding both the conditions and the characteristic actions of their work, can therefore plan more effectively for the education of adults.

THREE VIEWS OF PLANNING THEORY

In order to see why we use this image of negotiating interests, we consider in this first part three common accounts of planning theory (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Schubert, 1986): Classical, Naturalistic, and Critical. These three views answer the question of what planners do in very different ways. Each represents a model of practice that strongly emphasizes one or the other poles of the typical dichotomies of planner discretion and structural constraints, or more generally, rationality and politics (Cervero & Wilson, in press).

The Classical Viewpoint is personified by the work of Ralph Tyler (1949) who proposed four basic questions which must always be answered in planning programs: what objectives should the program seek, how can content be used to meet those objectives, what instructional methods will help the content to meet the objectives, and how will the planner know when the objectives have been achieved? The means-end mentality of these four issues have been translated into the prescriptive steps of program planning process as described in nearly all theories of adult education planning (Apps, 1979; Sork & Buskey, 1986). The essential assumption of this point of view is that applying these principles will solve practice problems in any situation. But as Pennington and Green (1976) have indicated, even as planners describe their work in these terms, they claim not to use this model in any systematic manner. Rather, planners stress the importance of personal values, environmental constraints, and available resources as critical factors constraining their action in the planning process. It should not be surprising that the principles of the Classical Viewpoint do not account for what planners do because this is not the intention of the authors who construct them. Program planning theories in this viewpoint tell educators what they ought to do: "it [planning theory] describes an idealized process that may or may not fit the realities of practice" (Sork & Caffarella, 1989, p. 243).

By shifting our gaze from the idealized principles of the Classical Viewpoint to actual planning situations, we answer the question, "What do planners do?" in a dramatically different way. Adult educators are no longer planners who apply a standard set of principles and procedures to any situation. Rather, they are real people trying to make judgments about what action to take in a concrete situation. In a highly complicated world, planners can only strive to make the best judgments. Planning practice is rarely a matter of knowing unambiguously what is right to do because it is more a process of choosing among competing alternatives. Good planning, then, is a matter of making the most defensible judgments about what to do in terms of what is possible (as defined by the constraints imposed by circumstances) and what is desirable (as defined by a set of values and beliefs) (Brookfield, 1986; Schwab, 1969; Walker, 1971). Making decisions in a specific context expresses the central characteristic of the Naturalistic Viewpoint: Planning systems do not make choices in the real world, planners do. Planning is a practical art and "depends in large measure upon the wisdom and competence of the person making the choices" (Houle, 1972, p. 223). This view highlights the central role of values and ethics on planning, its interpersonal nature, and its action-orientation.

In the Critical Viewpoint, planners can make good judgments about what to do only if they clearly understand that education is a political and ideological activity that is intimately connected to the social inequalities in the larger society. Because these judgments are made in a world of unequal and shifting relations of power, they are inherently ethical and political rather than technical. Therefore, all educators operate from an identifiable set of interests that drive and shape their planning activities (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Habermas, 1971). Thus, by identifying their interests, planners have a clear standard by which to make their judgments if they are to play a progressive role in creating a more equal society (see Cunningham, 1989; Freire, 1970; Griffin, 1983; Hart, 1990 as examples). The theories in this viewpoint show how existing organizational and societal relations of power shape planners' everyday judgments and implore them to plan in ways that fosters dialogue, democracy, individual freedom, and social justice. The essential idea in the Critical Viewpoint is that planning is inherently a social, political, and ethical activity and that planners make judgments based on personal, institutional, and social interests.

The Classical Viewpoint assumes that programs emerge from applying a set of prescribed planning steps. The Naturalistic Viewpoint compensates for this overly idealistic sense of reality by arguing that planners' actions are fundamentally "bounded" by the constraints of the situation. The Critical Viewpoint argues that educational programs are largely determined by structural forces, namely the dominant ideologies and interests of social, cultural, and political institutions. Although these three viewpoints offer important insights into planning practice, they are necessarily incomplete because people cannot act in act in the real world as these models assume they can. In other words, they are based on flawed accounts of human action (Bernstein, 1971; Hawkesworth, 1989, Lave, 1988). Planners are not free agents, able to choose unencumbered any planning course they want. Nor, however, are their actions utterly determined by social and institutional structures in which they work.

WHAT DO PLANNERS DO? PLANNING AS NEGOTIATING INTERESTS

We began this paper by asking what planners do. We believe the essential issue confronting planning theory in adult education is that it does not adequately account for the important things that real educators must do in everyday practice (Cervero, 1989; Goodson, 1991). As we argued above, we need an account of planning practice that integrates planner discretion and structural constraint. In order to do this, we have located practice in the intellectual traditions that "seek to explain relations between human action and the social or cultural system at the level of everyday activities in culturally organized settings" (Lave, 1988, p. 14). The crucial first step in this direction is to move planning out of the minds of individual planners and into the social relations among people working in institutional settings. Thus, planning is essentially a <u>social</u> activity in which educators negotiate with each other in answering questions about a program's form, including its purposes, content, audience, and format (Goodson, 1991). An educational program is almost never constructed by a single planner acting outside an institutional and social context. Rather, these programs are constructed by people with multiple interests working in specific institutional contexts that profoundly affect their content and form.

By locating practice in its social context, it becomes inextricably linked to the complex world of human and institutional interests. Interests are "a complex set of predispositions embracing goals, values, desires, expectations, and other orientations and inclinations that lead a person to act in one direction or another" (Morgan, 1986, p. 41). In other words, interests are motivations and purposes that lead people to act in certain ways when they are confronted with situations in which they must make a judgment about what to do or say. Interests provide a way of integrating planner discretion and social context (Cervero & Wilson, in press). Each planner is working with a complex array of interpersonal and institutional interests that ultimately become expressed in the final program. Program planners must work with situation-specific institutional and human interests, which are often in conflict, are constantly changing, may be invisible, and may be at variance with the planner's own values and intentions. Yet these interest define what is possible, desirable, and at times, imaginable. Every program, then, will be constructed out of the negotiation of these interests in the social context. Every aspect of a program represents the interests that went into its creation. Effective practice requires an active awareness and careful negotiation of the multiple interpersonal and organizational interests.

METHODOLOGY

The theory we outline in this paper draws upon three sources: our own experience as program planners, the literature on program planning in education (briefly reviewed above), and the data collected for three case studies of adult education planning. In researching these cases of planning practice, we deliberately sought three different types of organizations in order to get a wide range of planning experience: a management education curriculum in a business setting, a continuing education curriculum for pharmacists in a university setting, and a social action education program for businesses employing persons with disabilities in a community setting. In collecting the data for the case studies, we attended and audio-taped planning meetings, debriefed planners after their planning meetings, and examined available planning documents such as meeting agendas, institutional mission statements, and marketing materials used to promote the programs. In each case we analyzed the data for how the interests of the planners and their organizational settings were casually connected to the development and production of each program. (For an elaboration on the methodology and an extended discussion of the three cases, see Cervero & Wilson, in press).

RESULTS: INTERESTS IN PLANNING PRACTICE

We use this research to show that programs are produced by people with multiple interests working in specific institutional contexts that profoundly affect their content and form. We argue that we cannot understand the forms and purposes of educational programs unless we know who planned them, what their interests were, and in what institutional context the program was planned. Further, we argue that the characteristic activity of planners is one of negotiating multiple personal and organizational interests in order to construct educational programs. In each case we demonstrate how personal and institutional interests, as negotiated by the planners, casually produce the particular purpose, content, audience, and format of each program.

In the management training program in a service-oriented business, three central interests produced the actual program that was presented. The primary interest was to improve the way that the company's management communicated to the rest of the company's employees. In addition to the primary interest in fixing an organizational problem, the planners also had an interest in changing the approach of management education in the company to a more problem-based, experiential mode and strengthening the support for the company's human resource development function. These interests resulted in a program that changed the traditionally didactic format and content of company management education programs to a more interactive and experiential one yet did not fundamentally alter the structure of communication in the company.

The planners for the pharmacy continuing education program at a state university negotiated three primary interests in producing a program for practicing pharmacists. The primary interest was to maintain and enhance the College of Pharmacy's domain as a leader in the pharmacy

profession. In addition to maintaining its leadership, there were both economic interests of a market-driven education program and regulatory interests of the pharmacy profession itself as represented both in the accreditation of continuing education providers and the licensing requirements of the state. All of these interests were achieved in that the program maintained its traditional, expert-driven presentations by pharmacy faculty, attracted sufficient numbers to generate a profit, and provided sufficient hours for practitioner recertification.

In constructing a program to educate employers about the Americans with Disabilities Act, the planners negotiated three interests. The primary interest was to advocate for social changes in the way persons with disabilities are treated. In addition to this interest, the planners had to negotiate two other interests. The first was a mandate from their funding agency to use allocations to "leverage" more funds to carry out activities of their institutional mission. The second was to enhance the image of this agency in its larger institutional context and in the community. Because of a lack of registrants this program was not held and therefore did not generate leveraging funds for other agency programs. Even so, the planners felt that the planning of the program helped to enhance their advocacy role in the community as well as their institutional context.

POWER AND RESPONSIBILITY IN PLANNING PROGRAMS

Our purpose in conducting this research was to try to understand actual planning practice better in order that we might better understand how to improve it. Consequently, we argue that we should understand planning as a social activity in which adult educators negotiate personal and organizational interests in structured relations of power to construct educational programs for adults. This theory of planning offers adult educators a practical guide to normatively explicit planning practice by taking power and interests as central to action and by explaining what adult educators can do to plan programs responsibly. Without a practical understanding of how interests and power are intricately involved in planning practice, there can be little hope of adult educators acting responsibly.

Because planning is a complex social process of negotiation, we link planner action and social structure by examining the central place of relations of power in determining the outcomes of planning. As we indicated earlier, most planning theories fail to do this. Therefore, we need an understanding of power and how it affects practice. Power is a capacity to act given to people by virtue of their position in ongoing social relationships in which they participate; power may or may not be exercised on any particular occasion (Isaac, 1987). This view recognizes both the ubiquitous nature of power as well as the social conditions of its existence. Power is a logically necessary feature of all planning practices. To speak of the power of a planner, then, is to indicate what planners can do, "where doing is understood as performing a practical activity according to certain understandings and reasons" (Isaac,1987, p.76). These understandings or ends to which action is directed, which we call interests, are essential dimensions of power and of action.

If we are to consider planning practice as socially situated action, conducted within varying relations of power, and characterized by the negotiation of interests, what would rational action look like? In other words, what can planners do to act responsibly? The answer, in short, is that being rational means anticipating how existing relations of power are likely to support or constrain a substantively democratic process and acting in ways to nurture such a process. In a political world, rationality in practice can only be maintained if program planners carefully assess the institutional contexts in which they work and act according to the structure of the situations that they face (Forester, 1989).

How to characterize the political boundedness of rational action thus becomes the central problem for any theory of program planning. Planners inherit an historical starting point of power relations, and to be useful, the theory needs to conceptualize the recurring influences planners can expect to encounter. If the bounds that planners face were thought to be idiosyncratic to each situation, then rational action would become relativistic. Planners would have to "make do" because they have no way of anticipating the pressures, threats, and opportunities available to them. However, if we could typify expectable bounds across planning situations, planners would be able to act in practical ways that sustain democratic planning. If planners are to act responsibly,

then they must be able to "read" their organizational and interpersonal circumstances in order to select appropriate planning strategies. Adapting Forester's (1989) work, we have developed a conceptual scheme that differentiates how relations of power can structure the situations in which program planners must carry out their work.

Two crucial distinctions must be made in order to clarify the actual boundedness of rational action: the source of the power relations that is bounding planners' actions and the social necessity of the power relations bounding their actions (Forester, 1989). In terms of the source of bounds to action, some may be socially systematic in that they are tied to existing organizational designs or political structures and others may be relatively ad hoc in that they derive from temporary organizational conditions or interpersonal relationships. Whereas the former represent ongoing and relatively unchanging relations of power, the latter are transient in that the capacity to act distributed by the relation of power is limited to this particular planning situation. In terms of the social necessity of the bounds to action, some may be socially necessary (that is, they are part of the human condition) while still others are not. The importance of this dimension is that it assumes that some of the constraints structured by the power relations are inevitable whereas others are not. This distinction is important if planners are to recognize situations where they should work within the existing bounds and those where they should attempt practical actions to change the bounds.

The scheme provides a way of reading situations in terms of the constraints to action resulting from particular relations of power. The planner's response in is thus not always the same for every situation, nor is it totally idiosyncratic. Planning action depends upon the particular array of constraints--relations of power--and depending upon that array includes such corresponding planning strategies as statisficing, networking, bargaining, and counteracting. The political conditions of planing must be anticipated because they are important determinants of what planners can do and should do in terms of negotiating interests to construct the program in any situation. Stated forcefully, to be responsible, planners have to be political. By understanding the essential social and political dimensions of practice, our research has helped us develop a theory which moves beyond comprehensive rationality models (e.g.,Knowles,1980) and bounded rationality models (e.g., Brookfield, 1986; Houle, 1972) of planning to a politically-bounded theory of planning practice.

This social and political analysis leads to understanding the normative dimensions of planning practice. Consequently, it is necessary to argue for a form of practice that is morally legitimate. If planning practice is an activity that is essentially normative as opposed to strictly technical, then planning theory itself must also be normative if it is to be ethically instructive for the real judgments that planners routinely make. Such a theory must have an explicit value position, which is not based solely on what works for those in power. If interests are chronically negotiated in any planning process, then some ethical and strategic vision is needed to manage this process. We argue that adult educators must nurture a substantively democratic planning process. By "substantively democratic" we mean working toward the involvement of people with legitimate interests in light of the existing differential relations of social power that already exist and that must be accounted for in planning. We suggest five groups of people (having potentially unique interests) are central to the planning process: learners, teachers, planners, institutional leaders, and the affected public. To be responsible, planners need to represent these various interests in the planning process.

To the question of what planners do, we answer negotiate interests. This leads directly to the central normative question of whose interests will negotiated in what ways to construct educational programs. To that we propose our central insight for practice which is the explicitly normative one of engaging in a substantively democratic planning process, but we do so in a way which accounts for the social complexities of negotiation and structurally-organized relations of power. Therefore, to meet the goal of planning responsibly, we argue that adult educators should have a theory that illuminates questions of "how-to" with a politically and ethically articulated sense of "what-for." To this end, we conclude that educators must have: 1) a critical understanding of how relations of power threaten or support the social negotiation of legitimate interests, 2) a commitment to involve in the planning those people who have an interest in the program, and 3) a

repertoire of technical and practical strategies that can be used in politically and ethically sensitive ways to construct the program.

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ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES OF OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION: LINKING RESEARCH TO ORGANIZATIONAL DECISIONS AND DIRECTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Organizational values held by Extension educators determine how they plan, conduct, and evaluate programs. This study compared organizational values research of two Extension organizations: the North Carolina Cooperative Extension Service (N.C.C.E.S.) and Ohio State University Extension (O.S.U. Extension). The researchers identified potential organizational values of program personnel in both states. Values Questionnaires were constructed and piloted consisting of value statements using Likert-type scales. The Questionnaires were mailed to program personnel, and data were analyzed using frequency counts and percentages. Thirteen organizational values were identified for N.C.C.E.S. and 11 for O.S.U. Extension. A comparison of the values found four common values: (1) quick response to clientele concerns, (2) Extension programs that help people solve problems, (3) useful/practical programs, and (4) an emphasis on excellence in educational programming. All common values were categorized as process or product (program) value systems. Using these common values, the authors translated the values into critical success factors and programmatic action for the Cooperative Extension system

INTRODUCTION

As a result of the increasing rate of planned and unplanned change that permeates modern society, organizational objectives, goals, philosophy, and processes must also change if an organization is to remain a viable and effective part of society. Strategic planning has emerged as an effective and efficient tool for the proactive planning of organizational change so as to maintain and intensify organizational viability and effectiveness. Strategic planning is "a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization is, what it does, and why it does it" (Bryson, 1989, p. 5). The process of strategic planning focuses on designing, implementing and monitoring long range plans for improving organizational decision making and effectiveness within this context of change.

A large majority of strategic planning models developed for public and not-for-profit organizations include processual components to identify, clarify and/or evaluate the feelings, attitudes and beliefs of the organization's members, all of which are components of the members' values (Bryson, 1989; Simerly et al., 1987; Wysner, 1991). A value is:

> an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5).

The enduring quality of values arises from the fact that they are neither completely stable nor unstable, but rather change according to the changing physical, social, and spiritual environments of the individuals and groups that embrace them. Organizational values, like all beliefs, have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (Rokeach, 1973) which interact constantly and manifest themselves in organizational members' actions and behaviors.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to (1) identify valid organizational values of Cooperative Extension educators within two educational organizations, the N.C.C.E.S. and O.S.U. Extension, and (2) investigate similar or shared values of the two systems.

METHODOLOGY

The populations and samples for these studies were professional educators of the N.C.C.E.S. and O.S. U. Extension who were active at assigned professional responsibilities at the time of the dissemination of the research instruments. The Extension Directors' offices in both states granted permission to conduct the studies. The mailed survey method described by Dillman (1978) was utilized to obtain data for the studies. Questionnaires, along with a cover letter from the Directors were mailed to the sample populations.

A thorough search of the literature on organizational values specific to the Cooperative Extension System yielded minimal references. Consequently, qualitative research methodologies were utilized to identify potential organizational values for each organization, and quantitative research methodologies were utilized to identify organizational values and value systems for each organization.

NORTH CAROLINA

Safrit (1990) utilized a computer- aided, random sample of 24 N.C.C.E.S. professionals, stratified according to job classification and major program responsibilities, from the entire population of Extension educators. These individuals participated in a "Think Tank" held at a conference hotel in Raleigh, North Carolina. A member of the Planning, Development and Evaluation unit of the United State Department of Agriculture facilitated the session. Participants identified personal values and "life-giving forces" for the organization. By synthesizing and coalescing this information, the researcher formulated a list of 29 expressed organizational values for the N.C.C.E.S. This list was reviewed by a panel of experts and condensed into 27 expressed organizational values.

The researcher constructed a 94 item Values Questionnaire using these 27 expressed organizational values. The Questionnaire was organized into two sections. Section 1 contained 28 items using Likert- type scales to obtain information on the respondents' organizational values as educators in the N.C.C.E.S. Each item consisted of a value statement that corresponded to one of the 27 expressed organizational values resulting from the "Think Tank". Respondents were asked to read each value statement carefully and, to the right of the statement, circle the number that represented the response that best expressed their personal feelings and/or reactions towards that particular statement. Response choices and their corresponding numbers included: 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=uncertain, 4=disagree, and 5=strongly disagree.

In section 2, respondents provided basic background information used to categorize them. Information obtained included date of birth (i.e.., age), gender, race, current marital status, job tenure within the N.C.C.E. S. , job tenure in other state Cooperative Extension Services, highest level of formal education, type of degree earned, program area responsibilities within Extension and professional position within Extension.

Prior to distributing the Questionnaire, the researcher pretested the instrument with two panels of experts. The purposes of the pretest were to: (1) determine clarity of wording for both the instrument instructions and items; (2) determine a preference for the questionnaire format; (3) investigate respondents' attitudes towards the information requested; (4) evaluate face and content validity; and (5) approximate the time required to complete the instrument. Modifications were made accordingly: Cronbach's alpha was computer for each constructed scale as a measure of internal validity.

OHIO

Conklin, Jones and Safrit (1991) utilized (1) the literature, (2) the organizational values identified in Safrit's (1990) research, and (3) input from two panels of experts to identify 51 expressed organizational values for O.S.U. Extension. Using these expressed values, the researchers constructed a 62 –item Values Questionnaire organized into two sections. Section 1 contained 51 items using Likert-type scales to obtain information on the respondents' organizational values as educators in O.S.U. Extension. Respondents were asked to read each concept or idea carefully and to circle the number on two separate continuums that best represented the degree

to which they valued the concept or idea. Response choices ranged from 1 to 4, with 1 representing "not valued" and 4 representing "extremely valued".

In section 2, respondents provided basic background information used to categorize them. Information obtained included year of birth (i.e., age), marital status, gender, race, job tenure within the O.S.U. Extension, job tenure within other Cooperative Extension Services, whether or not the respondent was a county (administrative) chairperson, job classification, major program area responsibility, highest level of formal education, and curriculum area of most advanced degree.

Prior to distributing the Questionnaire, the researchers pretested the instrument with (1) a panel of experts and (2) former Extension educators currently in graduate school. The purposes of the pretest were the same as with the North Carolina study. Again, Cronbach's Alpha was computed for each constructed scale as a measure of internal validity.

In both studies, respondents were asked to return Questionnaires by specified dates. Follow- up letters were mailed to individuals with unreturned Questionnaires. Telephone calls were also used to improve questionnaire return rate. Final response rates were 88 percent in North Carolina and 74 percent in Ohio. The Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used in computerized data analysis. Basic statistical procedures were used in developing frequency tables. Categories for each variable generally adhered to those presented in the questionnaire. Frequency distribution analysis was employed to compile descriptive statistics and identify expressed organizational values with the greatest agreement among respondents. Values for the respective Extension organizations were identified by comparing calculated frequencies of defined groupings of item responses with a predetermined level of agreement that defined an item's acceptance as an organizational value.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The organizational values identified for N.C.C.E.S. and O.S.U. Extension educators are listed in Table 1. Overall percentages of Ohio respondents rating the values as "extremely valued" ranged from the predetermined level of 79 percent to a high of 93 percent; in North Carolina, the range was 81 to 94 percent. Although actual wording may vary among the specific values identified for the two Extension organizations, several similarities in valued concepts are apparent. Furthermore, when aligned with Rokeach's (1973) research, three values systems may be suggested for Cooperative Extension organizations: a Personnel Values System, a Process Values System, and a Product (Program) Values System.

The Personnel Values System contains individual organizational values for the respective systems that, although not synonymous, are neither completely dissimilar. Both state systems suggest the importance that Cooperative Extension has both historically and currently placed upon its internal human resources. The Process Values Systems of the two organizations share a value that is inherent in the Cooperative Extension philosophy, i.e., educational programs that address current and emerging needs of people. The largest number of similarities between the two organizations' values is within the Product (Program) Values Systems. Again, four of the individual values address concepts that are philosophically inherent in Extension's role in the Land Grant mission, i.e., practical programs that help people address and alleviate needs or problems. The emphasis on excellence in educational programming in this system reiterates the high standards and expectations that we, our partners, and our clientele have developed regarding personnel and programs.

Although the literature and our professional culture may provide insight into the shared beliefs of Extension educators, these beliefs are brought to life and translated into action through our organizational values. Personal satisfaction can only occur when there is congruency between our professional beliefs and the values evident within our work environment. Hitt (1988) believes that harmony between guiding organizational beliefs and daily actions of organizational members has a significant impact on overall performance of an organization.

Table 1
Organizational Values for the North Carolina Cooperative Extension Service and Ohio State University Extension (Shared Values in Italics)

NORTH CAROLINA COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE	OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION
PERSONNEL	
1. Sensitivity to personal/familial responsibilities. 2. Effective recruitment and screening of prospective employees.	1. Honesty/integrity in our work. 2. Good fringe benefits for employees.
PROCESSES	
1. Quick response to societal needs. 2. Use of emerging technologies. 3. Opportunity to work with individuals or groups. 4. Teamwork between program/discipline areas.	*1. Quick response to clientele concerns.* 2. Credibility with clientele. 3. Helping people help themselves. 4. Unbiased delivery of information. 5. Adequate resources to perform job responsibilities. 6. Extension financial support from the local level.
PRODUCTS (PROGRAMS)	
1. Problem-solving emphasis. *2. Pragmatic/practical programs.* *3. High standards of excellence.* 4. People-centered programs. 5. Flexibility/adaptability in programming. 6. Community-focused "grass-roots" programs. 7. Freedom/independence in programming.	*1. Extension programs that help people solve problems.* *2. Useful/practical programs.* *3. An emphasis on excellence in educational programming.*

Organizational values also provide a consistent basis for making difficult decisions. In times of fiscal retrenchment and increasing competition for resources, development of external coalitions, and a need to reach expanded numbers of clientele from extremely diverse backgrounds, organizational values serve as an important "conceptual yard stick" with which to measure alternative solutions to complex problems and issues.

The values audit is an important first step towards improving the health and productivity of an organization. Peters and Waterman (1982) share their philosophy on the importance of values as they conclude "clarifying the values system and breathing life into it are the greatest contributions a leader can make" (p. 291). Information from an organizational values audit provides critical information to both examine current organizational policies and formulate future directions for the organization. Identified organizational values are the foundation for effective strategic planning, including the development of organizational mission and vision statements. Critical success factors are the actions necessary for daily behavior to reflect the organization's identified values (Hitt, 1988). The researchers have developed examples of critical success factors for shared organizational values in the N.C.C.E.S. and O.S.U. Extension (Table 2). Administrators must collaborate with all employees to identify critical success factors that will help move the organization from the abstract world of values to the concrete world of actions.

Table 2
Translating Shared Organizational Values Into Programmatic Action for Extension Personnel

SIMILAR ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE	CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS	PROGRAMMATIC ACTION
NC: Quick response to societal needs. OH: Quick response to clientele concerns.	Utilize computer programs, information hot lines, teletips, electronic mail, and computerized kiosks in public areas Develop futuring skills in scanning the environment for emerging needs that could be addressed by Extension educational programs	Establish a programmatic expansion committee to identify new audiences for existing educational programs
NC: Problem-solving emphasis. OH: Extension programs that help people solve problems.	Critique workshops and presentations to determine if they include instructional strategies that foster critical thinking Strive to be more than just "depositors of information" by incorporating dialogue, questioning, and reflecting into Extension teaching environments	When presenting research-based information, ask questions to stimulate the audience to apply the information to their own situations and problems
NC: Pragmatic/practical programs. OH: Useful/practical programs.	Place emphasis on developing programs that meet the contemporary critical needs of youth, families, and communities Design Extension programs applicable to real life situations	Utilize role plays to simulate real life situations when teaching a farm management program Increase input from user groups in planning educational programs
NC: High standards of excellence. OH: An emphasis on excellence in educational programming.	Continuously evaluate Extension programs by involving advisory committees consisting of clients, Extension peers, and business and community leaders Ask peers and superiors to observe teaching and provide feedback	Update Extension programs regularly to incorporate current research findings and technologies Ask an advisory committee to critique a curriculum for a infant care short course

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IN THE EYE OF THE BEHOLDER:" THE PROBLEM OF MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES IN PROGRAM RENEWAL AND IMPROVEMENT

Terri Deems Laswell and John M. Dirkx

ABSTRACT

Like many forms of educational practice, adult education is experiencing social and cultural influences which are requiring almost continuous program renewal and improvement. Central to these efforts is some conception of quality towards which program staff strive. For the most part, conversations regarding program quality are dominated by a technical- rationality which results in "gold standard" definitions of quality. Recent research in program planning, however, suggests that such an approach is politically naive and largely irrelevant to the everyday lives of practitioners. This work was undertaken to investigate the extent to which practitioners' views of program quality in adult basic education reflect their membership in particular occupational groups. Results show that, when one views program quality in terms of existent strengths, ABE practitioners demonstrate remarkable similarity across groups. When viewed from the position of changes needed to improve quality, extensive dissimilarities become apparent. These findings support the contention that ABE programs are characterized by multiple perspectives of quality, lending support to a more practically and politically grounded approach to program improvement.

INTRODUCTION

"And what is good Phaedrus, and what is not good - need we ask anyone to tell us these things?" So begins Robert Pirsig's (1974) now classic inquiry into modern-day values and ethics. Throughout the story, the narrator gradually unfolds the varying faces of Quality, persistently exploring the perennial question, "What is best?" (p. 16). Caught up in a nationwide climate of educational reform and change, many adult basic education (ABE) practitioners and policy-makers are struggling with similar questions. Fundamental assumptions are being questioned and dramatic changes in practice considered. We strive for something different, but is it better or even "best"? Without thoughtful consideration of what is meant by a "quality ABE program" and how it comes to be defined, this climate of reform may very well take on a life of its own, with "no particular purpose other than the wasteful fulfillment of its own internal momentum" (Pirsig, 1974, p. 16). The purpose of this paper is to explore the meaning of program quality as it is viewed from the perspective of ABE practitioners. Fundamental to this study is the question of whether what is "best" is most appropriately understood from a monistic perspective (e.g. the gold standard approach) or whether it is more appropriate to understand this idea as inherently pluralistic and diverse.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Many program improvement and renewal efforts in ABE are implicitly predicated on the assumption that agreement on a single conception or set of ideas which define quality is possible and desirable. From this point of view, arriving at a unitary notion of quality is seen as a largely technical problem (Cervero & Wilson, forthcoming). Identifying characteristics which define a quality ABE program, whether in New York City, Hebron, Nebraska, or the Mariana Islands, may be difficult but is, none-the-less, possible and worthwhile. These assumptions are manifest in a variety of models of program planning that are dutifully taught in graduate programs of adult education but seldom utilized in practice (Sork & Caffarella, 1989). The monograph on "indicators of quality" in ABE recently published by the United States Department of Education (1992) reflects this technical- rational approach to defining quality. Program quality is viewed as a logical extension of the presence of certain characteristics, largely disconnected from the specific contexts in which these programs operate and from the particular individuals who operate them. While this model is intended only as a "guiding framework" which states can use to define their own indicators (U.S.D.E., 1992), there is little doubt that, when all is said and done, most state models will bear a striking resemblance to the federal model.

Research on the dynamics of program planning (Cervero & Wilson, forthcoming; Forester, 1989), curriculum- making (Grundy, 1987) and participatory education (Fingeret & Jurmo, 1989) strongly suggests that a clarion call for change based on a gold standard of program quality dramatically understates the complexity of the notion of quality and the processes in which programs will need to engage to effect renewal and improvement. This research stresses the importance of recognizing and understanding the variety of interests that are often at work in planning and change processes. Program planning, renewal and change are understood to be inherently political processes. Embedded in one's actions as a planner are visions of a desired state of affairs, which express one's purposes and interests. Implicit in the desired state of affairs is some notion of quality. Thus, conceptions of quality are, if not direct expressions of particular interests, at least strongly shaped by the interests that individuals and groups hold. Whose interests get to be expressed and how reflect distributions of power among individuals in the program.

ABE programs are usually staffed with individuals with different backgrounds, roles and reasons for becoming involved. As individuals become involved in adult basic and literacy education, they are socialized into various occupational or program roles. These roles tend to represent the interests of the broader social groups and contexts of which the individual practitioners are a part. Individuals tend to adopt the belief systems of the broader social or occupational group which they are joining, whether it is administration, teaching, or volunteering.

Using the recent work of Cervero & Wilson (forthcoming) and the notion of occupational socialization, we hypothesize that different groups of ABE providers bring to a consideration of program quality differing interests and, therefore, differing images of what is "best." What administrators hold to be true about a quality program may not be the same as what instructors, volunteer coordinators or volunteers hold to be true. For example, an administrator may believe that current program hours and distribution of staff result in a teacher/student ratio that is unnecessarily high, resulting in fewer hours in which the learning center is open. To improve overall program quality, she or he may recommend to increase program access by re- distributing the instructional assignments. The program's instructors and volunteers may have quite different ideas about the value of increasing access and decreasing the teacher/student ratio. These differing and sometimes competing interests will have a significant impact on the overall program improvement process

If practitioner conceptions of ABE program quality are more realistically characterized by "multiple perspectives," we will need to largely re-think current efforts in program improvement and renewal. To honor these diverse and pluralistic conceptions, new models of planning will have to be considered which are grounded in a constructivist view of knowledge and more democratic and participatory values (Cervero & Wilson, forthcoming; Fingeret & Jurmo, 1989; Grundy, 1987). The purpose of this study was to examine the views of quality reflected by these different provider groups and to determine the extent to which these views represent distinct, multiple perspectives of program quality.

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected as part of a statewide ABE program evaluation process involving 16 programs located in both metropolitan and rural areas in the Midwest. Individually administered questionnaires were distributed to and completed by 16 program directors, 23 volunteer coordinators, 92 paid instructors, and 107 instructional volunteers. Within this self-study, we used two open-ended questions for practitioners to identify what they considered to be the key strengths of their programs as well as those areas needing improvement. The category of "Areas for improvement" was interpreted as program elements the practitioner perceived as areas of needed change. Data from each of these two categorical areas were subjected to an initial qualitative analysis to identify common themes reflected in the responses for each practitioner group. A coding scheme was then developed and specifications were identified to define specific categories. Because of differences in the nature of the responses, we used two separate coding frameworks for Strengths and Areas for Improvement. Inter-coder agreement checks revealed acceptable levels of agreement between two judges. Each unit of data was then coded utilizing this framework.

FINDINGS

Practitioner perceptions of issues related to program quality are reported in terms of the characteristics of their programs they view as strengths and those areas in which they perceive the need for improvement. Areas of improvement are regarded as specific changes practitioners perceive as needed to improve the overall quality of the program. A lack of response to specific categories does not necessarily reflect a lack of interest in or concern for that category, nor does it necessarily imply that practitioners do not consider a specific category to be relevant to program quality. It may indicate that, within their respective programs, practitioners perceive these areas as being adequate. The important assumption being made is that Areas of Improvement specify the kinds of changes respondents perceive that, if implemented, would contribute to improved quality of their programs.

PROGRAM STRENGTHS.

Perceptions of strengths were interpreted as those items which practitioners perceived as indicators of quality within their programs. Responses involving Program Strengths were relatively abstract in nature and included the following categories and proportions of all participants' responses: characteristics of staff (38%); extent to which a program was learner- centered (14.5%); program administration (13.1%); accessibility (10.1%); curricular materials (9.5%); program outcomes (7.1%); climate (4.7%); facilities (4.2%); and sense of teamwork (4.2%). The following categories made up 25% of all strengths identified by participants: interagency collaboration, continuing education, curriculum, retention, recruitment, methodology, students, and community relations. A comparison of the proportion of all strengths identified for each practitioner group for each category of strength is provided in Table 1.

Table 1

A comparison of the categories of strengths identified for each practitioner group according to the proportion of total strengths identified for each group by category of strength

Rank	Directors	Coordinators	Instructors	Volunteers
1	Staff	Staff	Staff	Staff
2	Admin	StuCentered	StuCentered	Admin
3	Recruitment	Agency Collab	Materials	Access
4	StuCentered	Comm Relations	Admin	StuCentered
5	Access	Access	StuOutcomes	Materials
6	Materials	Facilities	Access	StuOutcomes

Nine categories are represented in the six most frequently represented categories of strengths for each provider group. Within these top six ranks, characteristics of staff, student access to instruction, and student- centered instruction are represented in all four groups. Administration and materials are represented in three of the groups. Recruitment, inter- agency collaboration, facilities, and community relations are represented in only one practitioner group. Characteristics of staff were identified most frequently by volunteers (56.9%), followed by coordinators (45.2%), directors (43.4%) and instructors (26.5%). Of all the strengths for each provider group, the category of student-centered constituted 23.6% for volunteers, 14.1% for instructors, 11.9% for coordinators, and 5.7% for directors. The category of administration constituted 34.7% for volunteers, 11.3% for directors, 7.1% for instructors, and 2.4% for coordinators. Volunteers had the highest proportion of comments for access (26.4%), followed by coordinators (7.1%),

instructors (5.9%) and directors (3.8%). Curricular materials were identified in 22.2% of all volunteer strengths, 8.2% of instructors, and 3.8% of directors. No coordinators identified strengths in this category. Finally, volunteers had the highest proportion of comments for outcomes (16.7%), followed by instructors (6.5%), and directors (1.9%). No coordinators identified strengths in this category.

Only four categories of program strengths had less than a 5% difference in the range of proportions for the provider groups (record keeping, support services, recruitment, and the curriculum). These categories were infrequently represented in the participants' responses. Most of the other categories had substantial differences in the proportions across provider groups. Although all provider groups frequently identified strengths related to characteristics of staff, differences were seen in terms of which aspects of staff had the greatest impact on program quality. For example, instructional volunteers focused on the personal characteristics and interpersonal skills of staff, while paid instructors emphasized the educational background and experience of staff. Differences were also seen within the category of student- centeredness, with paid instructors having the highest rate of response (14.1%) and program directors having the lowest (5.7%). The extent to which a program is accessible to students was also seen as a strength more so for volunteers (26.4%) than for instructors (5.9%), coordinators (7.1%) or directors (3.8%). Student outcomes were identified by 23% of the combined group of paid instructors and instructional volunteers. This category had only one response from program directors and none from volunteer coordinators.

AREAS FOR IMPROVEMENT/CHANGE.

The nature of responses involving perceptions of needed change or improvement was noticeably different from that of program strengths. Here, responses were directed toward program features that were more specifically related to the role of each practitioner group. Because of the level of specificity observed, more categories were needed in the coding framework for areas of improvement than were used for program strengths. Comments representing concerns for staff development constituted 23.7% of all comments related to change. Most of these were of a general nature, such as "in- service training," "more workshops and conferences," "opportunities for staff development," and "more continuing education." Many, however, identified specific topics in which they needed training, such as referral, special needs, motivating learners, instructional methods, and retention. The remaining responses were distributed over 29 additional categories of change, with a high of 8.7% for comments related to time and 0.2% for comments related to program evaluation, budget, advisory committee, and access. Twelve categories constituted 10% of all change response. In addition to staff development and time, the most frequently mentioned categories for change were instructional methods (7.1%), curricular materials and resources (5.9%), retention (5.4%), student assessment (4.6%), facilities (4.1%). recruitment (3.8%), student teacher ratio (3.6%), funding (3.6%), and nature of the students (3.3%). A comparison of the rank- ordered areas of improvement by practitioner group is provided in Table 2.

Thirteen categories of needed improvements are represented in the six most frequently mentioned categories for all practitioner groups. Staff development is the only area of need represented in the top six ranks that is identified by all four groups. Student retention, additional time, and instructional methods are represented in three of the four groups and curricular materials and recruitment are represented in two of the practitioner groups. Seven categories of needed improvements are represented by only one practitioner group. Within staff development, a wide range of interests were observed. All program directors' responses in this area fell in a "general" subcategory, which included nonspecific comments such as "training is needed." In contrast, instructional volunteers overwhelmingly emphasized the need for training in specific content areas and materials, while paid instructors expressed concerns for training related to meeting special learning needs and motivating students. For the volunteer coordinators, accessibility to training was the primary focus. Paid instructors described a strong need for learning how to motivate their students, while volunteers, within a separate category, expressed a desire for more motivated students. Clearly, there are conflicting perceptions of this aspect of the instructional roles between these two groups.

Table 2
A comparison of the categories of changes identified for each practitioner group according to the proportion of total changes identified for each group by category of change

Rank	Directors	Coordinators	Instructors	Volunteers
1	Retention	Time	Staff Dev	Staff Dev
2	Recruitment	Staff Dev	Inst Methods	Time
3	Pre- service	Funding	Time	Materials
4	Stu Assess	Stu/staff	Materials	Students
5	Staff Dev	Inst Methods	Facilities	Inst Methods
6	StuNeeds	Recruitment	Retention	Retention

"Time" was a rather unexpected finding in terms of needed change and improvement and was perhaps most notable in the differing interests expressed by practitioners. The proportion of responses in this category were similar among instructors (11.1%), coordinators (19.6%), and volunteers (10.1%) but no program directors made responses in this category of change. Two subcategories are clearly distinguishable within this larger category: the program's allocation of time to perform duties, and the amount of personal time an individual was able to devote to the program. Of practitioners describing "time" as a concern, 64% of the paid instructors and 88% of the volunteer coordinators directed their attention to program allocation. For the volunteers, however, 64% expressed a desire to have more personal time to give to the program and their students.

Almost 90% of the changes mentioned within the category of curricular resources and materials were made by instructors and volunteers. Only two directors and one coordinator identified needed changes in this category. For the most part, the concerns of the instructors and volunteers reflected simply a need for more materials. The only specific comments related to materials reflected a need for more and better ESL materials. A larger proportion of instructor comments identified instructional methods as an area for change (11.9%), followed by volunteers (7.3%) and then coordinators (6.5%). Few director comments were observed for needs in instructional methods (2.2%).

Student recruitment and retention were more likely to be identified by directors than the other three practitioner groups as needed areas of improvement. Almost 10% of the changes listed by directors reflected concern for retention and 9% of their changes reflected need for improvement in recruitment. In contrast about 5% of instructor and volunteer comments and only 2% of coordinator comments expressed need for improvement in retention. Only 2% of instructor and volunteer comments indicated a need for improvement in recruitment. Approximately 7% of coordinator responses indicated need to improve student recruitment. Almost all of the 13 comments (85%) made in the category of "better students" were made by volunteers (10.1% of all their identified changes). These comments reflected a desire to have students who "attend on a regular basis," "were motivated," and have "more commitment"."

DISCUSSION

Implicit in one's notions of program strengths and areas in which to improve are assumptions regarding what constitutes quality. Strengths represent those aspects of program quality which are perceived to be represented in one's program while areas of improvement suggest aspects of quality which need to be addressed. Members of different practitioner groups have different interests and needs within an ABE program and, as a result, it is possible that these different

groups hold to different conceptions of program quality. Our major goal is this study was to ascertain the extent to which different practitioner groups approach the issue of program quality from different perspectives. As Tables 1 and 2 reveal, the practitioner groups participating in this study demonstrate perceptions of quality that are both overlapping and quite distinct. When thinking about what they do well, practitioners demonstrate impressive agreement across practitioner groups. Characteristics of staff is, by far, the most frequently identified category of strength. In addition, fairly high levels of similarity in rank order of frequencies were observed for student-centered instruction, student access to instruction, effectiveness of administration, and curricular materials. Yet, even within the frequently occurring category of characteristics of staff, practitioners appear to value particular characteristics, depending on their group membership. Other categories with apparent similarities also reveal different perspectives on the larger issue.

It is our position that these differences reflect differing interests within the program. These differences can, in part, be explained by program areas over which practitioners have primary responsibilities and control. For example, directors value qualified staff, effective relationships with sponsoring agencies, and ability to continuously enroll students. Similarly, coordinators are concerned with recruiting qualified volunteers and collaborating with agencies and the community to insure volunteer involvement. Instructors and volunteers, however, appear most concerned about those aspects of the program that effect face-to-face instruction of learners. These interests, then come to be expressed in beliefs about what constitutes quality within their programs and how that quality may be enhanced. When attempting efforts at program renewal and improvement these interests may not always be directed in similar directions and may even conflict. Questions of power, who has it and in whose interests is it being used, replace technical questions of what is most effective (Cervero & Wilson, forthcoming). The findings discussed here suggest that ABE programs are characterized by diverse and pluralistic conceptions of quality. To implement improvement efforts will require models of planning and change that are grounded in more constructivist and participatory notions of quality. As Phaedrus has taught us, through Pirsig's (1974) work is that improvement is mediated through one's own space. Notions of what is best drive our quest for quality. Our quest, however, must also be directed inward as well as outward.

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USER FEES IN THE EXTENSION SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

Trends in the use of fees for extension education programs were documented in the United States and selected foreign countries. Fees are not considered a major source of funds in most states but their use is increasing. Some countries such as Great Britain, Sweden, Netherlands and Italy generated a significant amount of revenue from private sources. A conceptual framework was developed to rate educational programs on a public/private goods continuum. The agriculture programs were rated more as a private good more suitable for user fees while Community Development programs were rated more as a public good and less suitable for user fees. Family and youth development programs were in the middle of the continuum. Clients reported they pay more in user fees for similar programs from other sources. Clients who use extension programs were satisfied with current charges and would be willing to pay more for the programs. Fee- for- service could provide new programs and continue selected others that lack support from public appropriations. New policies and legislation are needed for full implementation.

INTRODUCTION

The Cooperative Extension Service, established in 1914, was designed as a partnership of the United States Department of Agriculture, the land grant universities, and local governments. The land grant universities, such as The Ohio State University, were authorized by the federal Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890. In response to this, states passed legislation to encourage local governments or organized groups in the nation's counties to become partners in this educational endeavor (Basic Charter, 1986).

It became the goal of the land grant institutions as they evolved to provide easy and affordable access to formal and non-formal research-based education. With public subsidy, instructional fees were relatively low. Essentially free continuing educational programs were offered through an extension system in nearly every county in the United States.

Although the Cooperative Extension System began primarily as an agricultural extension organization, it soon included youth development, home economics, and community development programs. As the population shifted to the urban and suburban areas, the mission became more broadly based. As a result, the current mission of Ohio State University Extension is to help people improve their lives through an educational process using scientific knowledge focused on identified issues and needs.

Many countries have established similar extension education programs. Cutbacks in countries with extension type programs such as Great Britain and in many states has forced a re-examination of funding and program priorities. In Great Britain, the Agricultural Development and Advisory Service (ADAS) changed program goals from increased production to increased profitability in the 1970's and 1980's and concurrently
implemented charges for most educational services. It was the goal of the ADAS to achieve recovery of half their costs for services to farmers by the end of 1994. Factors that led to this decision included the change in the political and economic climate in the 1980's that proposed those who directly benefit should pay for services, rather than public funds supporting the service. In addition, over production of food in the 1980's led the government to question the need to give free technical services to farmers to help produce a surplus for the market (White, 1991).

The fees for services that had been provided at no charge, raised a concern regarding the impact upon the client base. At the end of the first year, the financial targets had been met, and the total number of clients was at 80 percent of those before the charges were introduced. The clients

were not all the same people; some had left and some new clients were recruited (Westermarck & Kuba, 1989). Italy also experimented with alternative funding for educational services. In 1957, growers in the Bozen Province formed an Advisory Service for Fruit and Wine production. In 1971, the provincial government enacted a law assuring a contribution of 75 percent of the costs if the members contributed 25 percent. Members received bulletins, monthly magazines, as well as advice (Funt & Nicholson, 1991).

In the United States, charging clientele for at least some of the marginal costs of educational and publication costs has become an increasingly attractive option and has been widely used by Extension to control costs and continue vital services. The possible increased use of charges for programs raises philosophical, economic, and political questions. Part of the answer can be found in the economic theory of public and private goods.

A public good can be defined as a unit consumed with benefits not only to an individual, but to society as a whole. The externality characteristics of public goods infer benefits to be widely dispersed. The consumption benefits (or costs) are shared and are not limited to the consumers, or where the activities result in social benefits (or costs) which are not paid for by the producer or the consumer who caused them. A purely private good can be defined as a unit consumed by one person with benefits only to the individual consumer (Buchanan, 1969). The history and tradition of Extension would indicate that it is considered mostly a public good. Even when technical or management education programs are targeted to private farms or other firms, the secondary benefits of a high quality, low cost, safe food supply for society as a whole is cited as a public good with resulting rationale for public support for the programs.

Increased demand for these services has been filled with many new private firms. Examples in the agricultural area include soil fertility, pest management, animal nutrition and business record services. As these private fee-for-service firms succeed and often compete with public programs, questions are raised about what is most appropriately provided by the public sector. The question posed for extension organizations: Are current programs more of a benefit to the public or to an individual client?

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to obtain a greater understanding of the application of user fees. Another purpose of this study was to determine if user fees were an appropriate substitute or addition to appropriated funds.

Research questions explored: the dependency on user fees by selected states for Extension education budgets; legal policy constraints on the implementation of user fees; and a rating of selected programs on a private good/public good continuum. Lastly, a procedure was developed to determine client perceptions on user fees when a program is considered to be at least somewhat a private good.

The rating of educational programs on the public/private good continuum was used to judge whether or not client charges were appropriate and to provide an indication of the proportion of costs that should be transferred to the user (Lemov, 1989). Programs that would be considered a public good would include issue oriented programs that affect not only the immediate clientele, but would have benefit spill-over to many other people either on a local or a national scale.

METHODOLOGY/RESULTS

All states submit annual reports to USDA- Extension Service listing the amount of their total budget that is supplied from all sources. A questionnaire was mailed to the top ten states with the greatest percent of non- appropriated revenue for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1988. These states were selected based on the assumption that they may have had more innovative ways to charge user fees. In 1990, the total budget for the Extension system nationwide at all levels was $1,3 billion. Of this total, $53,3 million or 4.2 percent was generated from non-appropriated funds. For a few states, the proportion was significant. New York reported the

highest collections of all states with over 24 percent from non- appropriated funds. Most states collected various fees generating no more than two or three percent of the revenue. Only the top ten states collected more than three percent of the revenue from fees.

A second open end questionnaire was developed to obtain information on legal issues and policies affecting user fees. The position of United States Department of Agriculture, Extension Service (USDA- ES) supported by Extension Committee on Organization and Policy states user fees should not be used to supplement funds for salaries for regular Extension staff (i.e., infers federal funding support). An exception would be salary cost for someone working in a unit totally supported by service fees such as a soil testing laboratory. This is also the view for an employee supported totally by local (county) funds. The rule is less clear when specific positions can be shown to be supported by other funds and funds not used to match federal grants.

A continuum was developed to determine the private/public good characteristics of extension programs. A private good was represented by a one (1) and a public good was represented by a nine (9) (Table 1). Twenty-five questions were designed to represent a wide variety of programs in 4-H/Youth Development; Agriculture/Natural Resources; Community Development/Economic Development; and Home Economics. The instrument was pre-tested and appropriate revisions were made prior to administrating the questionnaire. The questionnaire addressing all four program areas was sent to a panel of experts consisting of 66 state administrators, state specialists, district specialists, and County Extension Agents in Ohio. Return rate was 100 percent.

Respondents rated the programs according to the private/public good continuum. Results indicated that non- issue oriented agricultural programs were rated toward the private good end' of the continuum. For example, a personal program for a dairy producer to develop a cash flow budget was rated to be the most "private good" of programs (mean 2.70, SD 1.70). Three economic development programs that dealt with issues and had a "teacher teaching the teacher" theme was rated the most "public good" of the programs. A program for local community leaders on inventory and site selection for attracting and expanding industry was the most "public good" of programs (mean 7.85, SD 0.99). Home economics and 4- H/Youth development programs tended to be in the middle of the continuum.

A procedure was developed to measure clients willingness to pay for a program determined to be more of a private good than a public good. This procedure, in addition to the continuum for private/public goods, provides a framework on how to charge a user fee for programs. The instrument utilized for the procedure was based upon financial planning programs which were determined to be a private good based on the continuum. The intent of this procedure was to test the instrument on its suitability for determining charges for a program. The case study following six of the fifteen respondents indicated that they used financial planning by providers outside Extension. Five of the respondents paid around $500 per year for the (farm analysis) service. The sixth respondent paid $100 for the service and the charge was by the hour, and all six felt the charges were fair.

Based on literature from Mushkin and Vehorn (1980), one way to learn what to charge is to ask the potential clients. The fifteen respondents were asked how much they were willing to pay for the financial analysis service which varied from $10-60 per hour. A follow-up question asked, "if the costs were higher, would you still purchase the service?" Eight indicated they would not, six indicated they would pay up to 20 percent more, and one reported it would continue if it would be cost effective at the somewhat higher rates.

Five of the sixteen respondents indicated that they had used Extension programs for financial planning. In four of the programs, user fees of less than $50 were charged. Finally, all of the respondents indicated that the charges were fair and they were willing to pay up to 40 percent more for the service.

Table 1.
A Determination Of Public/Private Goods for Extension Programs

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
|_____|
PRIVATE GOOD PUBLIC GOOD

		mean	SD
1	A personal program for a local dairy producer to develop a cash flow budget.	2.70	1.70
2	A sheep shearing school for commercial sheep producers.	3.47	1.89
3	A program for youth (9-19) on child care (baby sitting) for their family.	4.21	1.86
4	A program for adult consumers providing facts on food safety.	5.85	1.64
5	A local program on household recycling and waste management	7.30	1.29
6	A program for local community leaders on inventory and site selection for attracting and expanding industry.	7.85	0.99

NOTE: The above items were selected from a total of 25 in the original questionnaire.

CONCLUSIONS

Most states collect only two to three percent of their total revenues as user fees and do not consider fees to be a major source of revenue. User fees cannot replace appropriated dollars in support of Extension personnel according to current laws and institutional policies. New, independent services can be totally supported from fees including personnel. A suitable instrument was developed to rate educational programs on a private/public good continuum. Agriculture programs were rated toward the private good end of the scale while representative youth and family development programs tended toward the center. Programs on community services and economic development were judged as more toward the public good end of the continuum.

Users of a fee- for- service farm business analysis program indicated a willingness to pay private firms for such services and would pay increased fees for similar services provided by Extension. The market analysis tool could be used as a basis for developing a fee structure for private good-oriented programs.

Recommendations: User fees should be implemented to a greater degree than currently utilized. A goal of ten percent of total revenue would be realistic under current policies. For example, some traditional programs that may no longer be considered a public good and face possible

elimination could be continued with user fees. Extension needs clearer directions on how to charge user fees based on existing rules and guidelines. New rules and guidelines could be developed utilizing the private/public good continuum with the concept that the more a program is considered to be a private good, the greater the percentage of the total cost should be recovered by user fees. Money generated from public funds should be targeted to support programs with public good characteristics.

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THE EFFICACY OF THE INNOVATION ADOPTION DIFFUSION THEORY IN ADULT EDUCATION

Timothy J. Rollins

ABSTRACT

A descriptive correlational study examined the nature and strength of relationships between 15 statements derived from Rogers' and Shoemaker's generalizations about innovativeness. The randomly-selected sample (200) from 24,546 Pennsylvania farm operators was attained after telephone contact with 279 individuals who were asked to participate in the study (72% response rate). An Adopter Characteristics Questionnaire (Cronbach's alpha =.73), comprised of 15 attitudinal statements derived from Rogers and Shoemaker and positively correlated with innovativeness, provided a summated index called "adopter score" to measure general attitudes toward adoption of innovations. The respondents can be characterized similarly to what Rogers and Shoemaker predicted when they described the continuum of innovativeness on the basis of two characteristics of a normal distribution, the mean and the standard deviation. Fifty two percent of the farm operators were early adopters and early majority adopters and 48% were late majority adopters and laggards. Sixty nine percent of the explained variability in classifying farm operators into one of the categories of adopters was accounted for by three variables: *importance* placed on 1) scientific research and 2) learning about new concepts and ideas, and *frequency* with which they 3) used personnel from other agencies and companies--besides Cooperative Extension.

INTRODUCTION

One goal of social science is to provide an empirical base for understanding human behavior. The empirical prediction of behavior is not meaningful unless it is theoretically based and logically consistent. The adoption of new ideas, technology, and practices is affected by at least five factors: the type of decision involved in adoption; perceived attributes of the innovation; communication channels used; nature of the client system; and the extent of the practitioner's effort (Lamble, 1984). A major function of most practitioners is to facilitate the adoption of new ideas, technology, and practices or to influence the rate of diffusion and adoption of innovations by their clients. Rogers (1962) recognized that people do not adopt innovations simultaneously:

> *Innovators* are "venturesome ..., eager to try new ideas ..., desir[ing] the risky ..., cosmopolites". *Early adopters* are "respected by [their] peers ..., more integrated [into] the local social system ..., opinion leader[s] ..., localities." The *early majority* "interact frequently with their peers [and] ...may deliberate for some time before completely adopting a new idea ... and follow with deliberate willingness in adopting innovations, but seldom lead." "The *late majority* adopt new ideas just after the average member of a social system, ... [are] skeptical, and ... the pressure of peers is necessary to motivate adoption." *Laggards* adopt innovation last, ... are traditional, and "tend to be frankly suspicious of innovations and change agents. ... The laggard's attention is fixed on the rear-view mirror. (pp. 248-250)

Two decades ago, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) conducted research on adopter characteristics to enable diffusion agencies (i.e. Cooperative Extension) to appropriately categorize and address adopter audiences. Their findings related various independent variables to innovativeness (dependent variable) that were then grouped into three categories of generalizations: socio-economic status, personality variables, and communication behavior. For example, a socio-economic generalization states that earlier adopters are no different from later adopters in age; a personality generalization states that earlier adopters have greater empathy than later adopters; and the communication behavior of an earlier adopter includes more contact with change agents than that of a later adopter. Rogers' and Shoemaker's research produced five categories of adopters based upon innovativeness: laggards, late and early majority adopters, early adopters, and innovators. They defined innovativeness as "the degree to which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of his social system" (p. 27).

The adoption of new ideas and practices is affected by at least five factors: 1) the type of decision involved in adoption; 2) perceived attributes of the innovation; 3) communication channels used; 4) nature of the client system; and 5) the extent of the practitioner's effort (Lamble, 1984). A major function of extension practitioners is to facilitate the adoption of new ideas and practices or to influence the rate of diffusion and adoption of innovations by their clients. To enhance their effectiveness as change agents, extension practitioners must understand the unique characteristics that describe their clientele system.

Historically, the transfer of technology from a laboratory to a field has been a significant challenge for extension. The failure to recognize and address the psycho social component of technology adoption as part of the educational process has served to illustrate that generating knowledge is not always synonymous with diffusing and adopting knowledge (Barao, 1992). Riesenberg and Gor (1989) found that knowing farmers' preferences for receiving information would help program planners transfer information about innovative farming practices more effectively. In order to be an effective channel for the diffusion of information, change agents must be aware of their clients' innovativeness.

PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study sought to determine which of 15 generalizations (5 from each of the 3 categories) selected from those studied by Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) were related to Pennsylvania farm operators' perceptions of their innovativeness. Could these generalizations be used to profile the different categories of adopters? The study was guided by the following research questions: 1) How do Pennsylvania farm operators perceive their innovativeness?; and 2) Which variables derived from Rogers' and Shoemaker's generalizations about innovativeness most accurately classify Pennsylvania farm operators? Obtaining answers to these research questions would provide information that would more effectively focus professional development opportunities to enhance staff members' job performance. It was also anticipated that these results would enhance the teaching and learning processes while simultaneously enhancing educators' abilities to educate rural clientele to solve an increasingly important environmental problem-water quality.

METHODOLOGY

A descriptive correlational study was used to examine the nature and strength of the relationships between 15 of the generalizations derived from Rogers' and Shoemaker's generalizations about innovativeness. The population frame consisted of 24,546 Pennsylvania farm operators whose unduplicated names and mailing addresses appeared on the Pennsylvania Department of Agriculture pesticide training or brucellosis test lists. It was determined from Oliver, Hinkle, and Hinkle (1983, 1985) that the minimum sample size should be 197 respondents based upon the *a priori* effect size (.10) and a .05 alpha. A table of random numbers was used to select the initial random sample of farm operators whose telephone numbers were subsequently located in telephone directories. Farm operators were considered a "non-contact" and removed from the initial sample if their telephone number was unlisted or inaccurately listed in the telephone directory, or after three unsuccessful attempts (no answer, unavailable, or not at home) to contact them during weekdays from 7:30 a.m. until 9 p.m. (Frey, 1989). The random selection procedure was reiterated on two subsequent occasions (400 additional names and telephone numbers) to secure the minimum sample. Two additional interviewers were trained by the researcher to implement the research protocol. The average length of time to conduct the telephone interview and secure the necessary information averaged eight minutes. Two hundred farm operators (72%) responded to the telephone survey that was conducted during the fall of 1991. The total number of farm operators who were successfully contacted and asked to participate was 279.

INSTRUMENTATION

An Adopter Characteristics Questionnaire, comprised of 15 attitudinal statements positively correlated with innovativeness, was developed from generalizations about innovativeness (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). Three additional questions gathered demographic information. Content and face validity of the questionnaire were established by a panel of experts consisting of faculty and

graduate students from the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. The Adopter Characteristics Questionnaire was field tested with three farm operators selected from the population prior to selection of the initial sample. Based upon their responses and comments from the department faculty and staff, the questionnaire was modified. The 15 attitudinal items were subjected to a Cronbach's reliability test *post hoc* yielding an alpha coefficient of .73 which allowed a summated index called "adopter score" that measured general attitudes toward adoption of innovations.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The first research question sought to discover how Pennsylvania farm operators perceived their innovativeness. Based upon scores from the Adopter Characteristics Questionnaire, 52% of the farm operators were classified as early or early majority adopters and 48% were late majority adopters and laggards which is similar to what Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) predicted when they described the continuum of innovativeness on the basis of two characteristics of a normal distribution, the mean and the standard deviation. Twenty-one (11%) farm operators had adopter scores ranging from 23 to 41 (laggards) while 68 (37%) farm operators' adopter scores ranged from 42 through 49, classifying them as late majority adopters. Farm operators who were classified as early majority adopters numbered 61 (33%) and had adopter scores ranging from 50 to 56 while 33 (18%) farm operators who were classified as early adopters had scores ranging from 57 to 61. There were no farm operators classified innovators as described in the theory.

The second research question utilized discriminant analysis to reveal which variables derived from Rogers' and Shoemaker's generalizations about innovativeness most accurately classified Pennsylvania farm operators (Table 1). Relationships between the four adopter categories defined in this study were identified using the quantitative predictor variables from the Adopter Characteristics Questionnaire. Table 1 reveals fifteen variables that correctly classified 92% of the respondents (183) into one of the four groups. Laggards were correctly classified in almost 90% of the cases while 95% of the late majority adopters were correctly classified. Almost 89% of the early majority adopters were correctly classified while 100% of early adopters (19) were classified correctly. Despite additional discriminant models that categorized adopters using fewer variables, none of the models proved to be more accurate classifying adopters and none explained as much of the variance (83%) associated with innovativeness.

Table 1 . Multiple Discriminant Model to Classify Pennsylvania Farm Operators' Innovativeness

Function Derived	Eigenvalue	Canonical R	Wilks Lambda	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Innovativeness	5.24	.92	.135	329.13	45	<0.00
Variables Comprising Discriminant Function		**F to Enter***		**Wilks Lambda**		**Standardized Discriminant Coefficient**
Scientific Research		32.1		.64		.25
New Concepts and Ideas		22.6		.51		.21
Use of Personnel		19.2		.43		.20
Empathy		17.0		.37		.42
Social Travel		15.5		.33		.38
Use of Extension		14.6		.29		.41
Importance of Education		13.8		.25		.42
Risks		13.3		.23		.40
Credit		12.7		.21		.35
Control of Future		12.1		.19		.35
Use Person for Information		11.7		.17		.33
Business Travel		11.4		.16		.37
Positive Changes		11.0		.15		.29
Learn New Practices		10.5		.14		.29
Printed Material		10.0		.13		.19

*$p < .05$, $df = 1, 172$.

In the second discriminant model presented in Table 2, five variables discriminated 100% (19) of the early adopters from the other combined groups of adopters (133). The first three variables were derived from generalizations dealing with communication behavior; the latter two were associated with personality. The model accounted for 19% of the variance in discriminating between early adopters and farmers classified in the three other categories.

Table 2.
Discriminant Model for Early Adopters Compared to Other Farm Operators
(*p < .05, df = 1, 182)

Function Derived	Canonical Eigenvalue	Wilks R	Chi-Lambda	Square	df	Sig.
Innovativeness	0.25	.44	.80	39.34	5	<0.00
Variables Comprising Discriminant Function		F to Enter*		Wilks Lambda		Standardized Discriminant Coefficient
Use of Extension		12.1		.89		.59
Empathy		6.2		.85		.41
Business Travel		3.9		.83		.33
Use of Personnel		3.0		.81		.30
Control of Future		27		.80		.28

The third model discriminated early adopters and early majority adopters from the late majority adopters and laggards using seven variables. The combined group (81) of early adopters and early majority adopters were correctly classified 96% of the time compared to 83% of the combined group of late majority adopters and laggards (102). The seven variables in this model accounted for 55% of the variance in discriminating between these two groups (Table 3).

Table 3. Discriminant Model for Early Adopters and Early Majority Adopters Compared to Late Majority Adopters and Laggards (*p < .05, df = 1, 180)

Function Derived	Canonical Eigenvalue	Wilks R	Chi-Lambda	Square	df	Sig.
Innovativeness	1.24	.74	.45	142.96	7	<0.00
Variables Comprising Discriminant Function		F to Enter*		Wilks Lambda		Standardized Discriminant Coefficient
Scientific Research		67.6		.73		.43
Use of Personnel		54.2		.62		.46
Positive Changes		46.2		.56		.32
Empathy		41.4		.52		.39
Business Travel		37.6		.48		.33
Credit		34.1		.46		.26
New Concepts and Ideas		30.9		.45		.27

Table 4 reports six variables correctly classified 89% of the laggards compared to the combined group of early adopters and early and late majority adopters. Thirty-four farm operators were classified as laggards while 129 farm operators were classified in the other group which yielded an 89% correct classification rate and a discriminant model that explained 45% of the variance.

Table 4. Discriminant Model for Laggards Compared to Other Farm Operators (*p < .05, df = 1, 182)

Function Derived	Canonical Eigenvalue	Wilks R	Chi-Lambda	Square	df	Sig.
Innovativeness	.80	.67	.55	105.05	6	<0.00

Variables Comprising Discriminant Function	F to Enter*	Wilks Lambda	Standardized Discriminant Coefficient
Social Travel	30.5	.86	.48
Importance of Education	31.4	.74	.58
Use of Personnel	33.3	.64	.43
Credit	29.4	.60	.36
Use Person for Information	26.4	.57	.38
Business Travel	23.6	.55	.30

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

An underlying premise for this study was that the educational needs of adult learners could be assessed utilizing this theory. According to the theory, if agents desired to pinpoint educational programming to have the greatest impact in implementing new fertilization practices to improve water quality in their realm of influence, they should seek out innovators or early adopters to provide the necessary leadership. What traits ideally and accurately characterized these individuals? In this study, over two-thirds of the variability in classifying farm operators into one of the categories of adopters was accounted for by three variables: importance of scientific research; learning about new concepts and ideas; and the frequency with which they used personnel from other agencies and companies--besides Cooperative Extension.

This study confirmed that Rogers' and Shoemaker's (1971) generalizations about innovativeness are still useful to profile categories of adopters. Despite the fact that no one set or group of independent variables repeatedly classified their innovativeness across the spectrum, these results can provide keen insights into techniques practitioners need to provide education and information about new technology to farmers.

Planning effective adult education programs dictates that attention be devoted to the components of program development: needs, setting, objectives, activities, and evaluation. One criteria for assessing needs depends upon the clientele. A successful teacher recognizes the necessity to know the learners' educational needs or the discrepancies between the learner's current and desired proficiencies. Knox (1980) suggested that educators read about various needs assessment procedures to identify some that seem especially useful in a specific instance. It would seem that Rogers' and Shoemaker's (1971) Innovation Adoption Diffusion Theory remains a useful and valid tool educators can use to maximize their effectiveness in facilitating the adoption of new ideas and practices.

Knowing about an innovation does not necessarily mean it will be adopted by a potential adopter; it may not be regarded as relevant or useful. New concepts--innovations--that fit well with an adult's knowledge and attitudes can be readily incorporated into a workshop or course. However, preconceptions, prior knowledge, or attitudes can be in conflict with or interfere with the learning dynamics of an educational program (Knox, 1980). Thus, understanding and using new ideas is influenced by prior knowledge and habit. An adult's attitude toward particular innovations can intervene between the knowledge and decision functions. Whereas the knowledge function involves mainly cognitive mental activity--knowing--the persuasion function to adopt the innovation is mainly affective. Innovators--the first to try new things--may provide local trials for others to see after they have read technical and research publications. Effective change agents can exert a positive influence on a client's attitude or feeling toward the innovation. Therefore, they should continue to seek out cooperators and collaborators who they perceive to be innovators or early adopters. In other words, programs should be designed for specific audiences

to inform or provide an awareness of the technology, while others should be designed to focus on generating interest in or for evaluating the technology.

This study also confirmed that not all potential adopters of new technology use one information source exclusively. There are, in fact, a multitude of information sources available for farmers to utilize other than extension. Individuals adopting new technology or practices go through five identifiable steps (awareness/interest/evaluation/trial/adoption) each associated with preferred information sources (Lionberger & Gwin, 1982). Scientific laboratories, such as those found in industrial and research parks, agribusiness and agrichemical corporations, and biotechnology agencies have become purveyors of the types of technology, services, and information that, until recently, had been almost exclusively within extension's domain. Effective change agents can use the information from this study to target both cooperators and collaborators, as well as other prospective clientele, who may not have been previously identified.

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FOSTERING ADOPTION OF INNOVATION AND CHANGE IN ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE: THE COMMITMENT TO CHANGE STRATEGY

Michael K. Turner and John M. Dirkx

ABSTRACT

Recent studies strongly suggest that training and staff development programs often do not result in a ready transfer of actual knowledge to practice and are relatively ineffective in facilitating changes in practice. Many of these programs are dominated by "update" models, where new information is delivered to passive learners by content experts. This study investigated the efficacy of a "commitment to change" (CTC) strategy as a means of fostering intended change in the practice of adult education teachers. Results indicated that most participants successfully implemented their intended changes and were quite satisfied with the degree of implementation. These results suggest that CTC can be an innovative tool in helping professionals better understand the nature of change and how to implement it in their practice.

Continuing education, inservice education programs, and staff development for teachers continues to be a priority issue for educators concerned with the quality of education received by students across settings. Given the responsibilities of educating students of all kinds and the rapid changes in knowledge and social conditions of the time, creating environments that enable teachers to be continuously supported in efforts of professional development seems like an obvious and natural thing to do. Yet, the creation of educational programs that will achieve this is an extremely difficult undertaking. A variety of "models" have been developed to facilitate staff development for educators, but most are characterized primarily by "update designs. Such traditional models evolve from empirical-rational change strategies (Chin and Benne, 1985) that assume participants are rational and will follow their self-interest. Therefore, it is also assumed that they will adopt the proposed change if it can be rationally justified and if it seems they will gain by the change. This empirical-rational view of change largely ignores the importance of participants' prior beliefs, values, and attitudes in the process of adopting innovations or changes in their practice. Consequently, staff development often results in new knowledge gains but little actual change in practice.

Two related theoretical traditions provide a basis for understanding and bridging this gap - innovation adoption and normative re-education strategies. Everett Roger's (1971) work in innovation adoption and diffusion conceptualizes the innovation-decision process in four functions: 1) knowledge, 2) persuasion, 3) decision, and 4) confirmation. Adoption is a decision to make full use of a new idea as the best course of action. But this decision process is also affected by the norms and the perceived self-efficacy of the decision-maker. Change in a pattern of practice will occur only as the participants involved are brought to change their normative orientations and develop commitments to new ones. Changes in normative orientations involve "change in attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for action and practice" (Chin & Benne, 1985, p. 23).

Bandura (1977) argues that perceived self-efficacy plays an important role in behavioral changes. The self-efficacy of participants in staff development can have a direct influence on the choice of activities or strategies. Efficacy expectations will determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles. Consequently, self- efficacy theory can be helpful in describing individuals reactions to change. If individuals feel they do not have sufficient command or understanding of a content area or particular method or strategy, it is unlikely they will attempt to make practice changes in that area, or if they do attempt change, it is more likely they will be frustrated by barriers or obstacles. People generally fear and tend to avoid threatening situations they believe will exceed their coping skills, but will get involved in activities and behave assuredly when they view themselves as capable of handling situations. Not only can perceived self-efficacy have directive influence on the choice of activities, but through expectations of success, it can affect coping efforts once they are initiated. This theory offers insights to the difficulty practitioners have not only in constructing new knowledge, but also converting that knowledge into changes in their practice.

The design of the commitment to change (CTC) strategy, as it was used in this study, evolved from a synthesis of research on previous change models. These studies provided an additional theoretical framework for understanding the process of change related to staff development and in the development of the key elements of the CTC strategy. Devlin-Scherer, Devlin-Scherer, Schaffer, and Stringfield (1983) used a three phase approach to developing commitment in their work with classroom teachers. Phase one, trainer commitment generating activity, focused on discussion of the change in relation to practice and challenging the teachers to adopt change. Phase two, involved trainee discussion of commitment, including reports of success or non-success. Finally, in phase three trainees respond to commitment by adopting change, questioning value of commitment, or ignoring commitment. Key aspects of this study were the public discussion of and declaration of change. Furthermore, adopting changes in a group setting seems to build in a natural support group for those who encounter difficulties making identified changes. The Purkis (1982) study focused on the use of follow-up as a key to helping practitioners make identified changes in practice. Continued follow-up in this study led to a 100% return rate of questionnaires and allowed participants to discuss their changes in a dialogistic manner. Another key point of the Purkis study was that participants were asked to be specific, and limit the number of commitments so identified changes would be feasible for participants. In Jones (1990) discussion on the viability of commitment to change, she endorses the strategy because "it yields specific immediate information on the gain and application of knowledge and provides a basis for follow up of clinical behavioral change" (p. 38).

Taken together, these traditions stress the importance of encouraging adoption decisions early in the knowledge acquisition phase through a process that facilitates an "unlearning" of current normative orientations and committing to new ones. This study utilized the CTC process to facilitate our understanding of adoption of innovation and change in adult education practice and our ability to facilitate this change process among practitioners. It represents a theoretically grounded approach to bridging the knowledge to practice gap in adult education staff development.

METHODS

The CTC strategy was part of a state-wide, three day, residential, Teacher Training Institute implemented for 50 paid and volunteer instructors of adult basic education (ABE). The participants varied considerably in age and years of ABE experience and the vast majority were women. Years of experience ranged from none to twenty-four years, with an average of 4.9 years. At the end of training, participants were asked to identify and submit in writing two to three specific changes in practice they intended to make as a result of their participation in the institute. A one-month follow-up provided confirmation of the identified changes and at two months they were asked to respond to a questionnaire concerning the extent of change implemented, level of satisfaction with changes in practice, barriers to change encountered, and effects of changes on their practices. The extent of change was scored on a nominal scale (1=0-25%, 2=26-50%, 3=51-75%, 4= 76-100%, and 5=No response) for extent of change. Participants were asked to identify the extent of change as ranges to reflect more accurately the ongoing nature of change and to conceptually recognize that change rarely occurs instantaneously or completely upon implementation. Level of satisfaction was measured using a Likert scale (1=very satisfied to 4=dissatisfied, with 5=no response on level of satisfaction). Questions regarding barriers to change and effects of changes on practices were open-ended. A return rate of 67% was obtained. Descriptive statistics and qualitative content analysis were used to analyze the data. This information was then shared with all participants at a subsequent training session. Discussion focused specifically on factors which either facilitated or impeded the change process and on the nature of change itself.

FINDINGS

Participants indicated relatively high levels of success regarding the extent of change and very high levels of satisfaction with changes in practice as a result of using the CTC strategy. Every participant reported making at least one change and only two respondents indicated any level of dissatisfaction with their changes. The percentages for extent of change implemented were as

follows: 9.7% of respondents implemented 0-25% of their identified changes, 19.3% of respondents implemented 26-50% of identified changes, 45.2% of respondents implemented 51-75% of identified changes, 16.1% implemented 76-100% of identified changes, and 9.7% had no response. Satisfaction levels were even higher: 25.8% of respondents were very satisfied with changes in practice, 61.2% were somewhat satisfied, 6.5% were somewhat dissatisfied, 0% dissatisfied, and 6.5% no response.

The nature of the changes made in this study fell into categories of changes related to content or changes related to pedagogy. This is to be expected since most teacher concerns fall in these two areas. Participants identified one content area, learning disabilities, as an intended area of change more than any other area. Although this content was new to participants, they felt comfortable with the amount of new information they received and felt it important to include it in their practice. Changes involving pedagogy were largely an identification of new strategies for teaching math and reading. The process of assessment was also mentioned frequently. The nature of the changes identified by participants in this study seems congruent with the notion of self-efficacy noted earlier, that success of previous actions in a particular area, or methodology will likely promote the ability to adopt new change and overcome related barriers.

Participants were also asked to share comments regarding the effects of the CTC strategy on their practices, on their students, and any effects it had on them directly. Ninety-six percent of the responses were rated as positive, with only two comments indicating any kind of negative reaction to changes implemented. Both of these changes related to time needed for implementation. Many felt changes they had initiated helped students understand their own learning process better. For example:

> Students feel more involved in their own learning. Some have become more confident since realizing that their own experiences are valuable to and applicable to their education.
>
> It seems to make them more aware of their own goals and what the obstacles to those goals might be.

Others reflected on the impact the CTC strategy had on their practice and on the skills and effort required to improve it:

> I think the Institute has made a great impact on my awareness and has unlocked some creative thinking skills in me and has given me ideas.
>
> It's time consuming for me as an instructor to implement these changes, but I know the students are benefiting from the additions to the program.
>
> I think my participation in the ABE Institute has made other instructors more aware of their teaching and need for new approaches and techniques to meet student need.

These open-ended responses clearly reflect participants' perceptions that the CTC strategy was important to their ability to transfer the new knowledge and skills acquired at the institute into changes in practice and that the understanding of change will help them in future planning.

When analyzing the qualitative data concerning barriers to change, categories became saturated and all responses were accounted for within seven broad categories; 1) unstable student population, 2) lack of opportunity to implement specific goal, 3) lack of time, 4) difficulty initiating change, 5) changes in duties and responsibilities, 6) lack of resources, and 7) bureaucratic problems. Of these seven, the largest percentage of responses (41%) was related to lack of time. Here, four subcategories were identified that articulated specific barriers to change. These included: a) administrative or organizational problems, b)lack of classroom support, c) lack of time to train volunteers/staff, and d) classroom management problems. Many of these time related barriers can be summed up by participants' statements:

> The problem always seems to be time. We're always running out of it and there's so many things we get accomplished, but one always seems to get bypassed.
>
> Lack of time has been the biggest culprit. My co-teacher is still unfamiliar with the routine and my volunteers need to be trained also.

It is clear that despite the general success of this group with implementation, there are a number of specific barriers that make change difficult. It is important to note that many of the categories of barriers identified seem related to program or organizational support. Research on this (Broad and Newstrom, 1992; Cormier and Hagman, 1987) clearly indicates that any transfer of training is difficult, if not impossible, without the support of the organizations of those attempting to make changes in practice. Recognition of this, and of all potential barriers to change early in the process may allow for individual strategies being developed that may help overcome some of these barriers.

DISCUSSION

Broad and Newstrom (1992) identify "failure to support transfer after the training" (p. 112) as one of the critical issues in training. Staff development efforts have suffered from a similar limitation. Numerous studies of continuing education and staff development programs have raised questions regarding their potential for bringing about change in practice. Participants are often passive recipients of "new information" and are seldom asked to explicitly consider how they will use this information in their practices. Utilizing the theoretical traditions of innovation adoption, self-efficacy, and commitment to behavioral change, we developed and evaluated a strategy aimed at addressing some of these limitations. This strategy involved asking participants to make a commitment to change early and to focus on specific changes that are both important and feasible. Participants were consciously and actively encouraged to consider what they had learned, identify specific changes, and to make adoption decisions before leaving the program. Rather than just assuming practitioners would assimilate all the new ideas presented, instructors were asked to carefully think about the information presented in light of their own practices, skills, attitudes, values, and beliefs about what needed to be improved. Project staff established follow-up procedures to foster implementation of the intended changes in the participant's practices.

Our findings suggest that the reflective process used in this study developed awareness among participants of the change process itself and fostered reflection on practice. They clearly recognized that implementation of the intended changes was a gradual process and contingent on the contexts in which they practiced. Many recognized the need to modify or adapt specific strategies to fit their particular situations. In addition, implementation stimulated awareness of additional resources needed to fully achieve the intended outcomes of the changes. Practitioners also developed a sensitivity to effects such changes can have within their practice settings and to contextual factors that both facilitate and impede change. Commitment to change has also been used as an alternative to end-of-program happiness indices that are so prevalent in continuing education. This strategy provided specific and concrete feedback as to the effectiveness of the program in bringing about changes in ABE practice. This effort is a necessary first step but more research is needed to utilize the information obtained to make judgments regarding effectiveness of the program.

This study has also identified a number of questions in need of further study. Our current research provides information on the nature of the changes intended but we know very little about the decision-making process participants use to choose these changes. Future research should focus on how participants select the kinds of changes they do and why. Follow-up interviews could help provide information on this process. We also need baseline data on what might be considered reasonable levels of implementation within a certain time frame. These data could be derived from more broad use of the CTC strategy in adult education staff development and disseminating these findings at conferences and publications. More research is also needed on the ways in which contextual factors influence the adoption process. For example, one of the strongest barriers to change identified by Broad and Newstrom (1992) was a lack of organizational support for change. Little change in practice can occur for even a committed practitioner, if

support from their organization is not forthcoming. This issue was exemplified in our findings by the stress that participants placed on a lack of adequate time as a major factor impeding successful implementation. Studies should focus on processes used by practitioners to deal with these obstacles as they attempt to implement new knowledge and practice techniques. Finally, congruence between kinds of staff development activities and success in adoption should be pursued further. For example, active learning techniques are being heralded as essential components to effective adult learning (Silberman, 1990). Yet, relatively little is known about the effectiveness of these techniques in promoting actual change in practices.

Our experiences with the CTC process reflect the potential of this strategy for developing thoughtful and reflective change within instructors' practices. Practitioners developed both a deeper understanding of the specific innovations they were attempting to adopt and a better appreciation for the psychological and social complexity of the change process. While learning to adopt new innovations they are also learning what it takes to make this adoption process more realistic and effective. The contribution of the CTC strategy to staff development was summed up by one participant who wrote,

> "It helps to identify things you will do to make change and actually implement them." So often we have good intentions - ideas for new teaching techniques, but fail to put them into practice. These exercises requiring us to put commitments to change in writing have been helpful for this reason.

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Research Issues

RESEARCH ISSUES

Research plays an important role in any discipline. From creating the theoretical underpinnings to taking knowledge and putting it into practice, research broadens the scope of a discipline while at the same time defining its focus. Adult education as an emergent profession and diverse field presents interesting and challenging opportunities for researchers. In the 1989 Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education, Deshler and Hagan in "Adult Education Research: Issues and Directions" give a historical overview and discuss the current disputes regarding research in the field. It is certainly germane to this current conference on research-to-practice to note their focus on the ongoing dispute in adult education over the purpose of research.

Practitioners value research for the solutions it brings to the profession. New and improved methods of teaching literacy skills or training new employees are valued more than theory building or adding knowledge that may not have immediate application. Researchers see intrinsic value to adding to the knowledge base. This division over the purpose of research in adult education has existed during most of the "life" of adult education. As Deshler and Hagan point out, it was as recently as 1987 that the Commission of Professors of Adult Education had two separate committees, one dealing with applied research (Research Needs Task Force) and another dealing with basic research (Theory Building Task Force).

Arguing over whether research should be applied or basic is creating the same type of false choice that the argument of quantitative versus qualitative research has created over the years. The question isn't whether one is better than the other, but how we can build bridges from one to the other. Clearly there is a need for research that focuses on the needs of the practitioner: program planning, techniques, evaluation, teaching and learning styles, motivating learners, etc. There is also an undeniable need for further theory building when one considers that much of what we refer to as theory, such as andragogy, is not really a theory but rather a tenet of the profession. Fortunately, the philosophy of "theory-in-use" has resulted in researchers looking at practices resulting from theory and theory resulting from practices.

Various research orientations exist. As a result of borrowing from the "hard sciences," much of the early research was from the empirical or positivist perspective. In the last twenty years, post positivists appeared calling their research constructivistic, naturalistic, ethnographic, phenomenological or interpretive. While empirical or positivist research is still the most dominant orientation, there is a growing acceptance of other perspectives, as evidenced by the papers being presented at this conference.

The Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference focuses on the link between research and practice. The four papers accepted in the category, Research Issues, clearly meet the challenge of linking research-to-practice.

J. A. Henschke's paper, "Effective Techniques/Methods for Conference Presentations: Research Issues" looks for the research evidence that underlies our assumption that using participative techniques in conference presentations will assure more stimulating and active learning experiences. In addition, Henschke suggests that there are untypical places such as general books, how-to-manuals and practitioners' reservoir of unpublished experience that are as rich in research data as the more typical places we look - research journals. Henschke's research is seeking to add to the knowledge base while improving the best practices in the profession

L.E.Miller's "Research -to-Practice in a Positivistic Community" discusses philosophy behind research, kinds of research and the kinds of knowledge produced by research. Miller proposes "soft systems methodology (SSM)" as a strategy to address "soft problems" that cannot adequately be dealt with using systematic inquiry and systems analysis. SSM focuses on problem settings and identification as opposed to only looking at problem solving.

Miller believes that SSM will aid adult educators and others who are interested in addressing soft system problems by the analysis of the human activity systems. Miller's paper deals with the problem of doing pragmatic research to deal with social problems in an environment that values positivism or empiricism.

"Using Research to Create Linkages between Organizations" by L.R. Sandmann redefines the role as the practitioner from implementer of research to co-researcher. Building upon Lewins and later Rapaport's ideas of action research, Sandmann views research as being the link between private, public, non-profit and institutional community-based organizations that will maximize resources and increase participatory action research. Sandmann uses a case study of a joint effort between a university and a social service agency to illustrate how linkage can occur.

S. Shore's paper, "An Attempt at Critical Ethnography Dilemmas Facing Higher Degree Researchers for Educational Change," addresses the problem facing researchers who want their research design and methods to reflect liberatory themes. Shore identifies the problems faced by critical ethnography and the tensions created by her approach using an idealized framework. Reflexivity and critique characterize the research practices described in this paper.

These four papers are examples of researchers bridging the gap between practice and theory building. While there is practical application contained in all four papers, there is also concern with adding to what we know about linkage, educational change, research approaches and methods.

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EFFECTIVE TECHNIQUES/METHODS FOR CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS: RESEARCH ISSUES

John A. Henschke

ABSTRACT

Consistent pleas have been made for using participative techniques/methods in adult, continuing, community or extension education conference designs and presentations which assure more stimulating and proactive learning experiences. Despite these pleas, conference audiences, often quite large in number, are typically "treated" to lectures, papers, stilted presentations, etc., and have little opportunity for participation in the proceedings of the conference sessions. Nevertheless, many publications and one definition of "conference" suggest that although the degree of conference participativeness varies, the "better" ones have resource persons who not only imaginatively devise ways to obtain participants input via small group work as well as through reports from these same groups, but also help participants generate individual and organizational benefits resulting from "back-home" applications. Some however, still assert that there is no clear or convincing research evidence whether discussion and group participation techniques/methods produce any better conference learning results than more traditional one-way platform communication processes such as papers, lectures, films, recordings, etc. The major research issue of this paper relates to finding and/or generating evidence that may help determine which educational techniques/methods will produce the most effective results. One question that keeps nagging this author is: "What constitutes research?" Ten examples of adult learning activities in various contexts including conferences, drawn mostly from untypical sources are offered for consideration as research which supports the value of proactive participant involvement in conference sessions.

INTRODUCTION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE ISSUE

Consistent pleas have been made for using participative techniques/methods in adult, continuing, community or extension education conference designs and presentations which assure more stimulating and proactive learning experiences. Despite these pleas, conference audiences, often quite large in number, are typically "treated" to lectures, papers, stilted presentations, etc., and have little opportunity for participation in the proceedings of the conference sessions. Nevertheless, one definition of "conference" suggests that although the degree of conference participativeness varies, the "better" ones have resource persons who imaginatively devise ways to obtain participants input via small group work as well as through reports from these same groups. Many books and articles have been written on this topic, strongly and excitedly encouraging the use of adult education techniques/methods for enhancing the adult learners' conference participation as well as for generating individual and organizational benefits resulting from "back-home" applications.

In the midst of this plethora of prodding as well as providing descriptive "road maps" to accomplish increased participation, some still assert that there is no clear or convincing research evidence whether discussion and group participation techniques/methods produce any better conference learning results than more traditional one-way platform communication processes such as lectures, films, recordings, etc. The major research issue of this paper relates to finding and/or generating evidence that may help determine which educational techniques/methods will produce the most effective results.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THIS ISSUE TO BOTH RESEARCH AND PRACTICE IN ADULT, CONTINUING, COMMUNITY AND EXTENSION EDUCATION

This issue is important to both research and practice. It has been argued (Henschke, 1987) that practice is the source which produces items to be researched. It also has somehow been assumed that research findings are the substance which informs practice in the conduct of conferences in these fields. If this is the case, then, it could be very helpful to actually determine whether there is, in fact, the apparent lack of research evidence regarding appropriate techniques/methods to use--traditional or participative.

Rose (1992a) asserts that research into "facilitation" of adult learning is somewhat contradictory, surprisingly sparse, and fails to support the basic precepts. Hays' (1993) review of six current books on teaching adults appears to express throughout an uneasiness about writers' experiences, rather than research, being the primary source of the ideas and strategies they proposed. Rose (1992b) further contends that the amazingly sparse research into time effectiveness of these participative approaches have been inadequately studied, and there have been no studies about conference outcomes indicating effectiveness. However, one question that keeps nagging at this author is "what constitutes research--only that which is conducted formally and accepted for publication in places requiring strict formality?" This question also prompts others: "Is some evidence being overlooked which could help in answering this dilemma?"; "If practice is the grounding source for generating needs of research on the relative effectiveness of various kinds of educational techniques/methods, then practice could be helpful for innovating and improving conference presentations as well as guiding additional research on the effectiveness of various techniques/methods?" Although these and other questions may be asked, the primary one is "what constitutes research?" Much of the answer to this question has been in the positivist tradition, with more recent additions from interpretivism and critical theory. These have serious limitations as a source of guidance for teaching practice. However, it is here proposed for consideration that one answer to the above question may be: When the full implications of time, thought processes, testing, contextualizing and adoption of the adult educator's experience is studied as a primary source of the techniques/methods, ideas and strategies they use, this also could constitute research. Let us provide and analyze some important examples in the following section. These examples are taken from adult learning activities engaged and conducted in many settings, including within the narrow confines of conferences.

AN EXPLANATION OF MODELS OR AN ILLUSTRATION OF NEW INSIGHTS OR CHALLENGES ARISING FROM A DISCUSSION OF THE ISSUE

Amazingly little research evidence on the effectiveness of various conference educational techniques/ methods may be found in research journals or research conference proceedings where one would ordinarily look for such data. On the other hand, in the general books and articles written which encourage using participative strategies and techniques/methods, as well as in practitioners' reservoir of unpublished experience, ample research evidence supports participation and its effectiveness.

When Knowles (1989) hired a Harvard University astronomy professor to teach astronomy to adults at the Boston YMCA Adult Education Program in the 1930's, the participants disappeared after one session of the astronomer's reading his "dog-eared", yellow, university classroom notes to them. However, a following semester, Knowles located another Boston astronomer to work with the first group of participants. He assessed their learning needs and built the program in that class by taking them to the building roof on a cold star-lit night and having them point out the star systems they wished to learn about. As a result, the class grew in number, and Knowles learned the importance of having an instructor not only interested in the subject, but also interested in connecting the learning needs of the participants with topic at hand.

Wlodkowski (1985) has gathered together in one place the most research on enhancing motivation of adults to learn. Two criteria governed the inclusion of sixty-eight strategies he identifies in six phases of the motivation process. The first criterion for selection was that the technique/method was developed, tested and found to work as it was employed by someone else and the process as well as result published. The second criterion for selection was that the technique/method also worked for him as he employed it in his practice. If it didn't work' " for him, it was not included. Sixty-eight strategies passed both tests. In this it was obvious that a personal ingredient of "goodness of fit" or "ability to apply" was added to whether a technique/ method had been just purely researched by someone else.

Meyer and Keefe (1990) acquired special funding to establish a diagnostic center for reading problems in adults. The diagnostic testing was combined with practical teaching techniques in

volunteer training and teacher workshops. Instruments had to be used which were not designed for adults. Consequently, professional judgment seemed more reliable than test results. It was felt that the key to sound diagnosis in the research was the observational expertise of the person conducting the testing. While four profiles of learners were discovered, and forty teaching strategies or techniques/methods were developed, these were not meant to be cast in stone, but were to be employed and used dependent on the professional judgment for the effectiveness results. The strong personal element appeared very important and necessary, despite considerable financial support to conduct pure research.

Broadwell (1987) suggests that among all the things to be considered in learning, three major basic characteristics are required in a successful learning situation. First, involvement must be meaningful and well directed. Only when the learner has said something or is doing something can the instructor be sure of the extent of involvement. Second, participant accountability for the learning activity places the responsibility for learning on them. It includes their thinking of a specific objective they must reach, not one the instructor must make them reach. Instructors will plan activities which allow and encourage the learner to take the responsibility for learning. Third, a high amount of feedback from learners allows the instructor to know just where the learner is at any given time during the instruction. Success and effectiveness will be dependent upon what instructors hear for sure and see for sure from participants to tell them what they know for sure. Thus, any techniques/methods selected and used must be employed to accomplish the three above characteristics. Broadwell did not just pick these at random out of the air, but has based his selection on his best work in forty-five countries, all forty-eight United States, fifteen years as a corporate partner, twenty years with Bell Engineering Management, and twenty-five years as an adjunct instructor in an university executive training center.

Brookfield (1990) declares that developing and growing into the private, personal truth about ones own teaching takes time and courage. He further suggests that the professional and personal judgments and insights we regard as true only become so by being tested and confirmed in our real-life work contexts. Occasionally these come by suddenly revealed reality, but more often they come incrementally and are marked by an emerging and maturing readiness to trust personal intuition even when it contradicts conventional wisdom and the pronouncements of authorities. Although effectiveness is an enormously appealing concept which he declares as irredeemably value-laden and irrevocably contextual, it is inseparably connected to participants' learning. Brookfield's truths and techniques/methods about skillful teaching which took more than twenty years for him to develop, also apply during the conduct of conference sessions. These include: being clear about the educational purpose of your conference session, reflecting on your own learning, being wary of standardized models and approaches, expecting ambiguity, remembering that perfection is impossible, researching the participants' backgrounds, attending to how participants experience learning, trusting your instincts and the participants ability as well as willingness to learn, creating diversity, taking risks, recognizing the emotionality of learning, acknowledging your personality, evaluating more than participants' satisfaction, balancing support and challenge, recognizing the significance of your actions, viewing yourself as a helper of learning, developing your own list of truths about teaching instead of trusting or adopting the above list.

Galbraith (1990,1991) provides a list which when compared with Brookfield has similarities and differences. However, he emphasizes that good facilitation has the primary purpose of assisting learners in learning-how-to-learn. It also requires the recognition that since there are no perfect facilitators nor one best way to facilitate, it requires that one think about and develop a list of principles that can serve as a guide to one's own practice of helping adults learn.

Henschke (1992) argues that theory and practice, process and content, not only need to be congruent, but also that the professional is required to be committed to this and stay the course in practice for success to be achieved. He also contends (1987, in Klevins) that continual rehearsing by the instructor for his/her own preparation is necessary for the participants to experience the learning activity as dynamic and captivating. Descriptive evidence is provided (1989,1993) from a variety of formats and contexts, when he experienced this as a participant as well as conducted sessions as a facilitator which supports the axiom that we tend to teach the way

we have been taught. These concepts and practices have been acquired and integrated during a twenty-six year period working as a student and a professional in workshops, conferences, graduate university courses, continuing education with professional groups, consultancies and internships in the USA as well as with participants from sixteen countries on five continents.

Knowles (1970,1992) asserts that he has a deep commitment to apply the principles of adult learning in everything he does. His foundational principle in making presentations is that learners be active participants in a process of inquiry, not passive receivers of transmitted content. His second principle is to build the process on the backgrounds, needs, interests, problems, and concerns of the participants. His experience over a long period of time is that when learners have opportunity to take responsibility for relating their learning to their own life situation, three things follow: They internalize more quickly, retain more permanently, and apply more confidently. And the two-fold result of learning is that learners should acquire content and enhance their self-directed learning competencies.

These principles provide the foundation of his theory of large meetings (conferences): its educative quality is directly a function of the quantity and quality of interaction in the meeting--on the platform, between the platform and the audience, as well as among members of the audience. He gives an ample variety of illustrations on using these principles in various contexts with his concluding comment that he has never had an audience fail to get turned on to the adventure of collaborative thinking.

In the practice notes of Adult Learning, focus is placed on specific techniques/methods that have proven successful and are immediately applicable to a broad range of practice. Murk (1993) describes twenty-one tested techniques for teaching adults which he has developed and used, within the last twenty years, with teachers and trainers of adults on the college/university level, in hotel/motel colleges, and in special seminar training rooms. He also invites readers to add their own. The concept of learning how to learn (Smith, 1982) has far reaching implications for adults and for those who would help adults to change and grow and take advantage of educational opportunities. Direct links to application has been made through this virtual learning encyclopedia which applies theory to adults in every educational setting one could imagine, including: Learning styles, adults as learners, self-directed and collaborative learning, alternative ways of learning, and training designs to name a few identified on an extensive list.

In dealing with literacy problems among municipal employees in New York City, Harman (1967) tells how traditional approaches to teaching reading were discarded in favor of one with the following unorthodox curriculum characteristics and teaching methods: bug and rodent extermination manuals used as instructional materials, reading exercises and group discussion were used, actual teaching performed by exterminators instead of regular teachers. Activities included small huddle groups, conversations between tutors and between a tutor and a participant, readings from the manual, discussions among members of the group, formal authoritarian teaching, preparation of individual and small-group projects on matters pertaining to extermination, and just good fun. This resulted in all the forty-two participants passing their qualifying exam and a large group asked for a continuation of the course so they could achieve higher professional levels.

When Leypoldt (1967) focused on teaching in groups, she identified and developed thirty-one points where leaders and members could and should collaborate in learning. Then she outlined, detailed and diagrammed forty different techniques for accomplishing this task. Little did she realize that many printings and twenty-six years later, this material would still be valued as effective in helping adults learn in the USA, around the world, and in the newly emerging free countries of the former East Block nations.

The ten illustrations, drawn from unusual sources, ordinarily would be considered as craft knowledge (Hays, 1993), but this author has identified as also constituting research. A number of common themes run through this research data. First, the element of active participation on the learners' part is emphasized. Second, each has been developed, experimented with, tested and

refined over a period of time. Third, success in learning results from all of them. Fourth, each professional has a unique approach fitted to his/her own person and style of practice in the learning context.

SUMMARY

This issue relates to the conference theme of linking theory and practice. The major research issue of this paper focuses on finding and/or generating evidence that determines which educational techniques/methods will produce the most effective results in conference learning. It also moves the discussion beyond "it's a good thing for adult educators to use participation techniques/methods" and presents research evidence, drawn from the untypical sources identified above, for consideration of why, how to, and results of using them in adult education conferences. Although this author asserts that in answer to the question, "What constitutes research?" The data presented does constitute research. Others, however, may still wish to develop their own answer to the question of whether this constitutes research.

A related research issue raised in this paper is to suggest going outside traditional thinking boundaries to discuss the validity of searching, not only in regular research journals, but also in the untypical places presented above, which are replete with research data that could be helpful in clarifying which conference techniques/methods may be most effective to use for purposes of helping adult conference participants learn.

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RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE IN A POSITIVISTIC COMMUNITY

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ABSTRACT

This paper will examine the philosophies of research in an attempt to examine where adult educators are in that milieu. The paper will propose that pragmatic philosophy and soft systems methods may hold promise for research in adult education.

INTRODUCTION

A legend exists in the Middle-East about a man by the name of Nasrudin who was observed by a friend searching frantically in the roadway dust outside his home.
"What have you lost, Nasrudin," asked the friend?
"My key," said Nasrudin.
So the friend helped look for the key on hands and knees. Finally, after no success, the friend asked "Where exactly did you drop it?",
"In my house," Nasrudin said.
"Then, why are you looking here, Nasrudin?",
"Because there is more light here than within my own house," replied Nasrudin.

This story forms a backdrop for what I would like to discuss related to research. I would like to get you to think with me about the research that adult educators are conducting. I will try to take a look at the philosophy of science to define the boundaries of my thesis and attempt to draw implications for research in adult education. The heart of my discussion will feature the concept of "knowing". Ray (1987) stated that "research is not a process of proving something but a process of discovering and learning ..., ... we may see problem solving, thinking, learning, research and discovery as one and the same process."

To extend my analogy, where and how are we looking for our key? Are we tending to look only in the dust of the well-lit roadway, or are we willing to search in other locations, with other means, to move down that road to "knowing". Here, I am using Krathwohl's (1985) term, because he discusses research as not necessarily always resulting in the ultimate "to know", but on the roadway to "knowing".

That is, research moves us toward the solutions to problems, but does not always provide the absolute final answer to the whole research problem. Roling (1974) wrote that our research is not geared to make conclusions (generalizations) but as decisions, a formula for action.

INTRODUCTION

What I want to discuss will not be related to discipline-specific research, but related to "subject matter research" or "problem solving" research (Miller, 1989). Bonner (1986) related how land grant universities undervalue subject matter and problem-solving research relative to discipline research. The adult education key will not be among the roadway dust of basic research but in the house of the people. Our research tends to be toward "soft" on a soft-hard continuum, and toward applied on an applied-basic continuum.

Some basic researchers would note that adult education research is "soft," does not have clearly defined objectives or hypothesis, lacks focus and rigor, is not programmatic, and is not sufficiently funded. It is conducted by persons with weak training in research methodology who (1) cannot identify important research problems, (2) do not value research endeavors, (3) conduct research for promotion and tenure rather than for its importance and utility, and (4) have a limited amount of time assigned for research. We would not fare much better when those from the humanities or arts perused our work. This would also be true for those from the post-positivistic paradigms. They would view our work as not scholarly enough, not reflective, or not employing critical analysis.

As universities and other agencies move toward interdisciplinary inquiry and project teams are formed, the omission of adult education researchers from these groups will not be surprising because they do not understand what we do or how we can contribute. I have been frustrated, too many times to mention, because international or domestic projects have been submitted by my college or though interdisciplinary teams which had education/training or evaluation components and the proposers saw no reason to include adult education.

BODY OF PAPER

Let us consider these issues from the perspective of "knowing". Oliga (1988) summarized the basic elements of Habermas' Interest Constitution Theory and noted that the three different knowledge types implied different methodological approaches -- namely, empirical, hermeneutic and critical methodologies.

This theory helps explain much of our position on the hard-soft, basic-applied; and concrete-abstract, active-reflective continua respective to other disciplines. The technical wants to produce "laws", the interpretive to reach "consensus" and meaning, and the critical to achieve "emancipation" through reasoned choice. Van Manen (1977) noted that each of the three forms of inquiry is distinctive in terms of (a) its way of looking at people and society, (b) the form of knowledge it produces, (c) its logic in use, (d) its methodologies and techniques, and (e) the use to which the knowledge can be put.

The methodological approaches of the empiricists are followed to produce objective knowledge which is independent of the researcher, and replicable in other settings. The knowledge also has value freedom in that it is ethically neutral. The knowledge or "discoveries" produced add to the knowledge base in a discipline or, as in the case of hard systems methods such as engineering, provide technology which produces greater output or more efficient systems of doing things. The philosophy underlying this epistemology is most often positivism. The position is "that science alone represents a genuine form of human knowledge, such that non-science represent pseudo-knowledge or even cognitive meaninglessness or nonsense" (Keat, 1981). Popper (1969), although a positivist himself, argued that while science could be distinguished from non-science, that did not imply an equivalent distinction between sense and nonsense. The second doctrine of positivism posits that knowledge is the explanation and prediction of observable phenomena through the demonstration that such phenomena constitute instances of universal laws that remain invariate in all regions of space and time (Oliga, 1988).

The methodology of hermeneutics, or interpretative science, includes the "naturalistic", the "hermeneutics as method", and the "historical-hermeneutics. Oliga wrote that the naturalistic perspective includes the phenomenological symbolic interactionism which seeks to explain how social order, as a real phenomena, emerges from social action and interaction processes, from which shared meaning in turn emerges. Ethnomethodology seeks to explain how actors employ various cognitive resources to order and make sense of their everyday activities and make some activities accountable to others. Existentialism is concerned with the central lived qualities of individual human existence and seeks to understand the individual "life-world" from the point of view of those involved, using constructs and explanations which are intelligible in terms of common-sense interpretations of everyday life. The belief in hermeneutics is that social reality is distinctive in character and contain a component missing from natural phenomena; they require a mode of analysis different from that of mere explanation (1988). Jax (1984) related that interpretive science was conducted to interpret and give meaning to a given situation and that to provide broad generalizations was not the intent. The researcher takes on the role of the people or group studied and attempts to understand the context of the situation within the framework of the participants.

Critique, or critical hermeneutics, is an attempt to mediate the objectivity of historical processes with the motives of those acting within it, the aim being the freeing of emancipatory potential. The approach seeks to remove barriers to understanding that may be operative, without the individual or groups concerned being aware of them: a critique of ideology (Bleicher, 1980). The task is to render individual and social processes transparent to the actors concerned so that they can pursue their further development with consciousness and will, rather than remaining the end product of a causal chain operative behind their backs (Oliga, 1988). Freire (1987), referring to the adult learner, stated that they are objects of persuasion which will render them more susceptible to propaganda, but this cannot happen if they are critically aware of their situation, then they can act on it.

CONCLUSION

With this backdrop from philosophy, I believe it is clearer as to why we have difficulties in communicating about our research and participating in the research of others. Our tradition and our learning related to research methods are couched in the empirical method. However, much of our interests for knowledge production or problem solving lies in practical understanding with our basis in communicative interaction or emancipation.

When the basic scientist is so well versed in the positivistic paradigm and sees the study of nature and the production of value free knowledge as the ultimate end, how does a person from adult education explain the knowledge produced from man-man interactions. Or, for those concerned with emancipation, international development, or critical consciousness; how would one communicate such man-self interactions to an empiricist from the positivistic community. "Discovery" is the driving force for them, with patents.

If the research is conducted to better understand how to educate adults, wherein is the patent? Where is the value-free knowledge -- the laws -- the discoveries -- which emerge? Should they not be examining the man-man or man-self dimensions? Should the standards for research quality or promotion and tenure be determined from data-based, quantitative research publications? Schon (1983) stated that "in the United States more than any other country except Germany, the very heart of the university was given over to the scientific enterprise, to the ethos of the Technological Program and to Positivism."

Generalizations are closely related to theory, the difference being that theory specifies the relationship among a set of variables while generalizations concern the extent to which whatever relationships are uncovered in a particular situation can be expected to hold true in every situation. Cronbach (1982) concluded that social phenomena are too variable and too context-bound to lend themselves to generalization. He emphasized that data should be interpreted in context rather than reducing the context to arrive at generalizations, with local conditions becoming primary, and with helping "people use their heads instead of constructing generalizations and building theory". In essence, we should focus upon research which will permit us to put it into practice.

I suggest we look elsewhere for our lost key. The key may not be found in the well lit dust of the road. The key may lie in what can be applied, in the identification of the problem setting, in a given context, and in a more pragmatic concept of our research philosophy. Let us not be swayed by the preferences of hard/basic scientists with positivistic inclinations. Carl Rogers (1969) wrote that in educational research "rigorous procedure is considered more important than the idea it is intended to investigate. A meticulous statistic and a sophisticated research design seem to carry more weight than significant observation of significant problems." Therefore, a pragmatic philosophy is more nearly in order. Pragmatists use a standard of "workability". Is the recommendation from the research "workable" in this situation. Truth may be place and time specific.

Ackoff (1974) noted that most of the real problems of society are "**A Mess**" of interrelated problems and not resolvable with common research methods -- they are a system of problems. Consider the "rural decay" problem in the United States today. Consider all the related disciplines which have a stake in that problem, just a few of which would be economic revitalization, educational, sociological, anthropological, medical, or environmental. The problems the public and the legislatures want addressed are often these "messy" problems. Ulrich (1988), in defining a program of research in such "messy," soft systems, poses that these are "practical problems", not unlike those faced by pragmatists such as adult educators. He notes that the practical intent is to bring more reason into actual social practice, that theoretical knowledge would bring some "objective knowledge" about some segment of the problem whereas practical reason is to secure ethically justified consensus among the stakeholders about norms regulating interpersonal relationships within our world of society. Freire (1987) wrote that knowing, whatever its level, is not the act by which a bit of knowledge is transformed into a subject who passively accepts the contents others give; on the contrary, the curious presence of learners who are confronted by the world, they transform actions on reality with constant searching, invention and re-invention with each person undergoing critical reflection on the very act of knowing. Knowledge is not extended from those who know to those who do not. Knowledge is built up in the relation between human beings and the world, relations of transformation and reflects itself in the critical problematization of these relations.

I (Miller, 1991) previously have proposed that we consider soft systems methodology [SSM] (Checkland, 1981; Churchman, 1968; Ackoff, 1974; Raman, 1989) as a potential strategy for adult educators to employ because it deals with problem setting, and involves the stakeholders in the research process in the local context. SSM is not a method to necessarily employ in one specific study, but a philosophical basis for conducting inquiry. SSM's are called "soft" because the problems addressed do not have clear objectives, hard feedback mechanisms or boundaries. The system is a construct and its objectives and boundaries depend on shared decisions and consensus, and one which I suggest you explore.

Within universities, we have become academic cannibals: "eating our own"! Our internal criticisms of each other leak outside to our detriment! I have tried to illustrate a broader definition of scholarship, encompassing other ways of knowing, to alleviate such elitist criticism, as we seek our key.

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USING RESEARCH TO CREATE LINKAGES BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONS

Lorilee R. Sandmann

ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions are being challenged to strengthen their capacity to respond to societal needs. One method of meeting this challenge is through the use of research, particularly community-focused, participatory action research. A case example of such a research project between a broad-based community agency and a research intensive, land-grant university is provided. A redefined role for the adult or community-based educator in this process is explored.

INTRODUCTION

> *Today, universities need new ways to serve the public; they do not have them. The result is a vacuum that attracts all manner of complaint and criticism. If we would have it differently, we must associate ourselves prominently once again with efforts to solve problems that really concern the people of this country."*
>
> Derek Bok, President Emeritus, Harvard University
> *Change*, July/August 1992, 18.

The connected university, the extended university, the "communiversity," the synergistic university are all concepts which have evolved in response to pressure on publicly funded higher education institutions to become relevant, useful, and accountable to their funders. In a time of restrained budgets, the challenge for educational institutions is to "deliver"; to help society solve its problems, and to become more directly involved with their respective communities. Typically, this involvement has taken the form of institutional collaboration and increased cooperation with other community-based public, private, and non-profit organizations. Efforts have focused on problem solving and technology transfer projects, or on credit and non-credit instructional programs. Although often overlooked, research alone can provide a direct link between higher education institutions and the community.

This paper:

- describes how research, particularly community-based participatory action research (PAR), can be used to create connections between organizations;
- illustrates this linkage via a case example of a partnership between a United Way agency and a research-intensive university;
- addresses the role of the educator in this form of scholarship.

PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH

While there are many research approaches that could be used as a means of creating relevant, timely connections between institutions of higher education and the communities they serve, participatory action research (PAR), emerging from the fields of adult education and community development, holds the greatest promise.

Almost fifty years ago, Lewin (1946) suggested learning about social systems by trying to change them. He proposed cycles of analysis, fact finding, conceptualization, planning, implementation, and evaluation, to solve problems while simultaneously generating new knowledge. Subsequent investigators have elaborated on Lewin's ideas. Rapaport (1970) defines this process as "action research," which:

> *"Aims to contribute both to the practical concerns of people in an immediate problematic situation, and to the goals of social science, by joint collaboration within a mutually acceptable ethical framework."* (p.499)

This definition emphasizes the importance of both scientific contributions and problem solutions while stressing the common values and standards that link researchers and their clients (Brown and Tandon, 1983).

Sharing general, similar values to action research is participatory research. This approach, practiced initially in developing countries, was first described by influential participatory researchers Freire (1972) and Hall (1975). Both action research and participatory research value useful knowledge and emphasize the importance of developmental change as a consequence of inquiry. They differ, however, in ideological beliefs as to how these values may be attained. Discussion of the fundamental similarities and differences between action research and participatory research are explicated in a 1983 article by Brown and Tandon. Writers, such as Argyris (1985) and Whyte (1991), have since proposed an updated, integrated approach labeled "participatory action research" and "action science."

MOTIVATION FOR LINKAGE

Organizations and individuals engage in, and sustain, linkages only if they are beneficial. Whatever the specific approach, systematic inquiry will have value to the community if it:

- is participatory; that is, has local commitment and involvement;
- is embedded in a recognized community problem;
- builds on, or develops, indigenous knowledge, rather than creates dependencies;
- produces credible, useful information;
- enhances decision making and action;
- is cost effective and timely.

Through community-based research, it seems obvious that institutions of higher education would be contributing to society, however, it may be less obvious that by doing so, three important contributions would be made to that particular institution. Such research efforts afford faculty, staff, and students windows on current reality. The perspectives gained through these windows provide scholars understanding of the contemporary meaning, value, and use of their disciplinary or professional knowledge.

Community-focused research also raises interesting and important questions. As a result, further research, teaching, and outreach become more vital, and the intellectual life of the higher education institution is more stimulating. Exploring these deeper questions also exerts a continuous shaping influence on the character, orientation, and activities of the higher education institution and its faculty, staff, and students. Finally, the recognition of the university as a partner in, or source of, usable knowledge has strong appeal for public, private, and nonprofit institutions, state and local governments, and individual citizens, strengthening its political and financial viability. Such a mutually beneficial linkage between a higher education institution and a broad-based community agency, created through a community-based participatory research project, will be described.

CASE EXAMPLE OF RESEARCH LINKING INSTITUTIONS

THE PROBLEM

It is often the case that community problems to be solved or ameliorated exceed the resources available with which to confront the problems. Consequently, the rational use of resources involves determining what the various problems are, how serious each problem is in terms of its impact on the individuals affected or how costly each case is for the individual or group affected, how prevalent the problem is within the population, how effective the efforts are to correct problem cases when the effort is made, and how many resources are needed to address the problem. With such information, communities are in a position to prioritize each problem and allocate resources so as to optimize overall improvement in the lives of those community members.

The United Way of metropolitan Grand Rapids, Michigan, undertook such an assessment as a part of its strategic planning effort to use its capital resources as effectively as possible in addressing the health and human service needs of Kent County residents. In this regard, The United Way of Kent County commissioned Michigan State University's Institute for Public Policy to conduct both a survey of the households in the county and a series of focus groups as a part of an effort to assess needs. These research activities were designed to assess individual perceptions of community problems, as well as the severity and prevalence of the problems. (Hembroff, Grummon, Sandmann, 1993).

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This assessment was consistent with the practice of participatory action research in compiling useful information through active interaction between university researchers, The United Way, and community members. Each party brought unique and important resources to the collaboration. The university faculty team brought an understanding of sophisticated scientific survey methodology. Additionally, the community-based faculty member, as part of the research team, brought an understanding of, and presence in, the community. These experienced researchers conducted a cross-sectional survey of 600 households which were selected via using random-digit dialing. Each interview lasted an average of 13.8 minutes; the longest interview was 37 minutes. The household sample was weighted to match 1990 Census characteristics. The final weighted sample very closely matched the county population. The overall sample has a margin of sampling error of 4.5 percent.

In order to gain a thorough understanding of the community's thoughts on Kent County's needs, a series of focus groups were held. The goal of the focus groups was to add a qualitative dimension to the information gathered through phone interviews, which focused primarily on individuals' experiences in potential needs areas. Through discussion, the 67 focus group participants were able to detail their perceptions about community needs. In addition, the focus groups were asked to present their views on the adequacy of current services in meeting those needs. Considerable material was yielded in both areas. Community-based university outreach faculty organized and facilitated each focus group.

Agency personnel and volunteer community members contributed their knowledge and perspectives to the project by establishing the scope of the study by reviewing the research methodology and instruments, and by providing feedback on draft copy of the final report. Surprisingly, the greatest point of negotiation was not on the 600 household survey, but on the number and composition of focus groups. "Which groups...representing which causes...would be given voice through participation in a focus group?" This was a politically charged issue! The United Way citizen advisory committee for the process finally agreed to two focus groups with key community leaders, three of service providers (including staff and directors of agencies funded by The United Way; and directors of agencies not funded by United Way), and two focus groups of service recipients. Participants in the focus groups were then randomly selected by the researchers from lists provided by The United Way. Names of selected participants were kept confidential .

THE FINDINGS

Beginning with the citizen advisory group and the United Way Board of Directors, dialogue around community needs emerged as researchers presented the findings. They were also shared with all study respondents and at a community forum. Subsequent discussions were supplemented with The Heart of West Michigan United Way Priority Systems of Need for 1994-95 (1993), indicating how the results of the assessment were used in priority setting and resource allocation. While the researchers were not involved in the decision-making process, they assumed an educator role, assisting the community in understanding the data, in interpreting the results, and finally in raising and framing critical issues related to the findings.

BENEFITS

The combined resources of the agency, citizens, plus university faculty and students, were linked in a process that depended upon shared decision making. All participants shared in the generation of knowledge. As a result, The United Way obtained statements of community need that serve as a defensible basis for capital allocation decisions. In addition to a profile of community needs for its own purposes, The United Way is also in a position to share the information with other community groups. Because of the rigor and the scope of the assessment, the findings are being used as a type of community benchmark or baseline measurement. Moreover, The United Way has a replicable process that it plans to use to document the impact of allocation decisions over time.

There were benefits for the university researchers, as well. Not only did they develop a better understanding of social change in a contemporary community, they were also able to identify, firsthand, areas for further inquiry. Not insignificantly, delivering a quality, timely report enhanced university stature, and has resulted in additional partnership opportunities with other community organizations.

This example characterizes research conducted through a dialogical relationship between researchers from outside the specific social setting and people from within the setting. Further, it illustrates the PAR approach as collaborative social research and research as an educational process. If action is the purpose of participatory research, participation is the means by which to achieve it. In this case, the community was involved in formulating the problem and design, and in assisting with data interpretation, and in using the findings. Researcher involvement ceased, however, when it came to allocation decision making, and was not involved in developing plans, choosing intervention strategies or implementing the resultant projects. Therefore, this example does not fulfill the potential of PAR as a direct path to problem solving and action itself; it falls short of actually being action research.

ADULT EDUCATOR ROLE REDEFINED

The role of the educator within this paradigm is not merely the commonly practiced disseminator, applier, or interpreter of existing research nor just a liaison to faculty-researchers within the university. Rather, in this view, community-based educators need to redefine their role to include that of co-researcher with others from the university and with community agencies. Indeed, in this synthesis, the distinction between theory and practice or research and outreach is minimized. Therefore, this mode of operating depends on community-based educators, as scholars, having well-developed research / community development skills.

Further, this approach demands that the these community-based educators, or those with' the community liaison responsibilities understand both cultures--the culture of faculty at higher education institutions and the culture of the community. Knowing the expertise, interests, and availability of research faculty, as well as being sensitive to the faculty reward system, is essential for successful use of research in creating linkages between organizations. In addition to understanding the institution, it is important for the community-based educator to be able to fully understand and articulate the community context--particularly the social, political, and economic dimensions. As a boundary spanner, part of the educator's role, as illustrated in this 'paper, is to assist principal research investigators in developing flexible, context-specific research models that meet community needs while maintaining ethical, rigorous standards.

Perhaps, contrary to Derek Bok's statement that universities need new ways to serve the public, research universities already have important ways to serve the public. They do need, however, the leadership, will, expertise and support systems to partner with others in generating knowledge in service to society. Given this charge, higher education institutions, through community-based educators as co-investigators, can be leaders in creating and sustaining vital, relevant linkages between organizations.

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AN ATTEMPT AT CRITICAL ETHNOGRAPHY: DILEMMAS FACING HIGHER DEGREE RESEARCHERS FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

Sue Shore

ABSTRACT

Many Australian writers reflect liberatory themes in their adult literacy work. This paper focuses on a form of research, critical ethnography, which aims to reflect these themes in its design and the outcomes generated for participants. I draw on the concept of an idealized framework' as a guide to practice. In this study the framework addresses the characteristics of critical ethnography and some guidelines for developing a reflexive approach to research methodology. My conclusions suggest the social and political aspects of literacy use and research processes are key issues to consider in any research that encourages educational and social change to redress social inequality.

INTRODUCTION

Australia is currently experiencing economic reform processes that have positioned adult language, literacy and numeracy (hereafter referred to as "literacy") development at the heart of the re-training and multi-skilling movement. Within this climate of economic reform literacy has been identified as an essential ingredient in the move to position Australia as a viable competitor in the international marketplace. This situation creates mixed feelings among literacy practitioners. For many years Australian practitioners have called for more sophisticated understandings of literacy. Recommendations in a recent policy document, Australia's Language: the Australian Literacy and Language Policy (DEET, 1990) indicate plans to increase public awareness of the complexity of adult literacy and expand the knowledge and research base on Australian literacy provision. However, much Australian research is still establishing the extent of literacy difficulties, and is often not explicit about the value laden nature of research processes or literacy practices.

Writings that reflect liberatory themes of Australian practice (see for example Bee, 1989; Shore, 1993; Wickert, 1991) offer much to adult literacy practitioners at a time when economic rationalism encourages provision that identifies pre-ordained learning outcomes, measurable against competency statements which often ignore the historical and political realities of teachers' and learners' lives. However research for educational and social change to challenge these prevailing views of teaching and learning is problematic. In particular critical ethnography, which is the focus of this paper, has inherited a number of problems first, from its association with conventional ethnography and second, because of the value laden nature of its approach which renders it susceptible to criticism from those who believe research can be free of bias. Research practice in the study I describe here was guided by an 'idealized framework' (Troyna & Foster, 1988, 297) influenced by the work of Patti Lather (1986a, 1986b, 1991), Jane Kenway (1987) and Bob Smith (1990). But an ideal vision also set up tensions which in practice were often not resolved satisfactorily within the constraints of the framework.

This paper will expand on these tensions and propose ways in which researchers for social change might develop reflexive designs that are explicit about how research decisions influence research outcomes. I draw on my research experiences during a study undertaken in 1990, reported in Shore (1991), which proposed that a teacher's questions structure students' participation in adult literacy classroom discussion - an important component of many adult education classes and a crucial aspect of literacy development. I believed that adult literacy classes, like many adult education settings, were in danger of perpetuating asymmetric patterns of interaction between teachers and learners, rather than reflecting egalitarian and collaborative environments often espoused in the literature. I realized that a teacher's questions did not occur in isolation. The problem was to develop a research design which documented specific teaching practices and at the same time acknowledged the historical and institutional constraints shaping those practices.

IDEALIZED FRAMEWORKS INFORMING THE RESEARCH

Radical pedagogy and emancipatory practice were key themes in my initial reading. There are significant differences between and within research approaches guided by Marxist, feminist or critical social science concerns, however these approaches share some common themes; attention to 'critique', an interest in human emancipation, and a commitment to social change made explicit during the research process by attention to ideological values and beliefs driving the research (Kenway, 1987). A spirit of critique assumes that knowledge is produced through social interaction therefore all knowledge, and the processes by which it is produced, is open to interrogation. Furthermore inequality is embedded in social relations and is legitimated and reproduced through language practices and forms of social interaction which establish inequality as "natural". So individuals and groups often remain unaware of how they collude to sustain asymmetric relations of power by using familiar language practices. Critique aims to interrogate and dismantle patterns and structures which are presented as natural, and therefore beyond the influence of individuals and social groups. This magnifies the significance of literacy learning and research into that learning since language is a key element in portraying the naturalness of social interaction.

I also believed that the research processes we choose influence research outcomes and that research participants are affected by the intrusion of researchers into the daily matters of their lives (Lather, 1991). From an emancipatory perspective researchers need to consider how research can avoid the pitfalls of locating participants as the "other" - the researched, and be mindful of how useful research outcomes are for participants; that is can participants act to change the inequality they experience by using the outcomes of the research process. I kept returning to these issues during the fieldwork and later as I struggled to analyze the data in ways that would assist the teacher.

I intended to describe the research as a "critical ethnography" however there are a number of reasons why the final report and elements of the process do not approximate an ethnography as conventionally defined. I believed the study would be ethnographic because I intended to "live with" and describe the culture of an adult literacy teacher's professional life. I wanted to reconstruct her time with the adult literacy group as it unfolded during the ten weeks of the study.[1] I believed the study was critical because a central element of analysis involved examining the way in which participation and negotiation in the class were structured explicitly and implicitly through the teacher's questions. I was interested in analyzing the constraining as well as empowering potential of the teacher's practice. In addition I wanted to place her practices within an historical framework acknowledging the ad hoc development of Australian literacy provision and staff development. Ethnographic research seemed to offer a means of doing this.

Conventional interpretive ethnographies organize and explain social interaction via descriptions from the perspective of the participants. On the other hand critical ethnography "transforms this procedure into a particular one by supplying it with additional perspectives, principally historical and structural, that alter the ethnographic project toward one which supports an emancipatory ... concern" (Simon & Dippo, 1986, 201). Critical ethnographies aim to present descriptions and analyses of social interaction from multiple perspectives, guided by the structural arrangements and individual perspectives coexisting within a culture. These descriptions and analyses begin with the contention that inequality is embedded in social interaction and analysis aims to reveal the ways in which social interaction perpetuates patterns of dominance. To this end critical ethnographers do not collect data, rather they "produce" (Simon & Dippo, 1986, 200) data about social relations and this in turn reveals the multiplicity of ways in which inequality is played out in

[1]See Rist (1980) and Hammersley (1992) for discussions of ethnographic processes. Time, depth of engagement, and presentation of the report as a descriptive study, rather than narrative, are the key reasons why I believe it is difficult to label this study a critical ethnography. Instead I called it a description and analysis of a teacher's questions using ethnographic methods and informed by critical theory analysis. This evades the issue to a certain extent but also draws attention to the problems associated with labelling research methods.

daily life. The purpose of this data and its interpretations is to offer insights rather than present descriptions with predictive power.

Critical ethnography offers other insights as well. Participant understandings of social relations may not always reveal the complexity of competing interests or the ways in which individual behavior subverts emancipation. When critical ethnographers "generate insights", "explain events" and "seek understandings" (Anderson, 1989, 253) their purpose is to reveal not only what is said but also what is left unsaid, about understandings of social reality. Anderson notes that participants' "reconstructions of social reality are often permeated with meanings that sustain powerlessness and people's conscious models exist to perpetuate as much as to explain, social phenomena" (1989, 253). Critical analyses of such reconstructions tell us what we do as individuals to resist and contest, as well as sustain relations of power. From this perspective participant recollections alone are inadequate, as are designs which focus solely on empowering strategies. They offer a partial picture of social interaction, but to be more comprehensive they must include structural analyses and potentially disempowering practices as influential themes in educational practice. So critical ethnographies offer additional perspectives which allow contradictory patterns of social interaction to be explored (but not predicted) within a theoretical framework which acknowledges the asymmetric nature of classroom power relations. But additional perspectives are neither emancipatory nor illuminating if they silence or marginalize the realities of participants' lives. Both Ellsworth (1989) and Clarke (1989) elaborate on the dangers of emancipatory research which loses sight of the needs of participants in its eagerness to adopt a politically correct position. This should be a real concern for those of us who belong to privileged groups but seek to define our role as researchers for a form of social and educational change which challenges the very basis of our privilege. Such concerns must be foregrounded in research designs and practices which aim to be responsive to participants' needs.

This admittedly brief review of conventional and critical ethnographies is supported to some extent by Hammersley (1992), however, he also suggests that the criticisms of conventional ethnographies which I outline here are rather narrow and reflect a limited view of conventional ethnographic work. Such critiques merely point to the fact that conventional ethnographies are not critical ethnographies; this obscures debate about the usefulness of conventional ethnography as a form of social research, and masks the methodological difficulties critical ethnography has inherited as it seeks to move beyond conventional explanations of social interaction. My own attempts at research using ethnographic methods informed by critical analysis suggest that a framework which is explicit about relations of power and the role of the researcher in producing social knowledge is a useful point from which to begin to understand and recreate one description of the life of a group. Doing this as part of higher degree study creates its own tensions and at times limits the degree of fit between ideal visions and actual practice.

MOVING TOWARDS THE IDEAL

The idealized framework I have described above is complex and time consuming in terms of research practice. In many ways I think it sets up unrealistic expectations of a research process particularly given the academic, professional and personal demands of higher degree study. Its complexity is not evident in brief method descriptions of the study. In essence I used ethnographic methods based on the limited methodological literature on critical ethnography available at the time. (See Anderson, 1989; Brodkey, 1987; Simon & Dippo, 1986; and Thomas, 1983.) I undertook the field work in May - June 1990, with an adult literacy class of predominantly women learners. The class was offered in a South Australian Technical and Further Education College over a ten week block for three hours, once a week. I acted as participant-observer during class periods. I interviewed the teacher and students, and participated in one staff development activity. Raw data consisted of reflective journals, field notes, and transcripts of the tape recorded classroom discussions, a staff development activity, and teacher and student interviews. These were analyzed to reveal one perspective on the nature of classroom interaction in this study.

My research practice was influenced by two key concepts: reflexivity and critique. I have talked briefly about critique in a previous section of this paper. A reflexive approach enables researchers to modify the research process on the basis of insights emerging from the data and idiosyncrasies of the research design. But I had a limited idea of what this involved before I began. Critique and reflexivity are not separate processes and operationalizing reflexivity is a "journey into uncharted territory" (Lather, 1986a, 267). Throughout this study I used Lather's guidelines to develop a reflexive and reciprocal relationship between the researcher, the teacher and the data produced. This included:

1. establishing correctives to researcher understandings
2. challenging the naturalness of social arrangements in the classroom
3. being explicit about contradictory practices in research and teaching processes
4. including teacher insights in emerging analyses
5. attempting to use emerging understandings to inform teaching and research practice.

Briefly my reflexive strategies included "member checks" (Guba & Lincoln, 1985) to confirm, correct or elaborate on summaries of classroom events and the factors influencing the teacher's practice; peer reviews with critical friends and a "peer debriefing" exercise (Guba & Lincoln, 1985) to challenge my own practice and emerging analyses of the data; guided interviews which recycled my interpretations of the data and explored the teacher's intentions during class activities and her own interpretations of her practice; explicit challenges to apparently natural teaching practices such as turn taking and individual programming for self-directed learners and the teacher's responses to these challenges. I have expanded on these strategies in the original report and have not pretended that there are easy solutions to the dilemmas posed for researchers with financial limitations or time restrictions. But time and professional or domestic demands were not the only factors which influenced my practice. Many of the decisions I made were driven by strongly held beliefs, unarticulated at the time, about the nature of "real" research, in addition to what can best be described as my novice researcher status. Time and funding are factors which limit possibilities in any research endeavor however I believe these are peripheral to factors such as prior theorizing and pre-existing conceptual frameworks I brought to the research process. For example, I began the research with a particular questioning framework in mind, developed initially by Nina Wallerstein (1983) for use with non-English speaking background (NESB) learners. It took some time of observing and discussion with the teacher before I jettisoned this framework as counterproductive to my aims and purposes in analyzing the teacher's questions. I found it difficult to share emerging analyses with the teacher because of the specificity of the framework. Initially the teacher seemed to ask few questions of the type proposed by Wallerstein and, in terms of the responses I could offer, this made her practice appear deficit. On another note, when analyzing the data I was guided by central themes in critical social science research: What is missing? What is not happening? Where are the gaps and silences in the data and how have I interpreted these? During interviews with the teacher this approach created problems precisely because of its attention to what was not there. I believe this set up tensions between what was happening and what could, or should, be happening. This inadvertently undermined the teacher's work because my perspective was legitimated by my researcher status - a status which was admittedly novice, but I had yet to convince the teacher of this.

On reflection I believe many of my desires for collaborative and participatory research were unrealistic and for a range of reasons it was difficult to map ideal and actual practices. My ideal framework was not always consistent with the literature on critical ethnography either, for the process can be guided by a researcher who provides data for participants who review and act on interpretations in the process of working towards their own emancipation (Smith, 1990). The emancipatory work of a critical ethnographer may be neither participatory nor collaborative in terms of the procedures involved in data production My thanks to Eileen Willis for drawing this point to my attention and clarifying some of the tensions created between my desires to work in a participatory manner and the ambiguous guidance available at the time on critical ethnographic approaches.—Lather's guidelines and research processes advocated by Guba and Lincoln gave me strategies for being more public about the private aspects of research work as I balanced my ideal practices with a set of actual practices which would enable me to complete the research.

CONCLUSIONS

The type of research I have discussed here offers much to literacy practitioners and other adult educators at a time when dominant educational discourse seeks to coopt liberatory concerns as part of an agenda for national productivity. In the current political and economic climate of Australian education Bagnall (1991) believes quantifiable "outcomes driven" approaches result in programs which "trivialize" education and reduce "wisdom and understanding to ... information, bodies of knowledge to facts, crafts to skills, sensitivity to behavioral acts and human virtues to attitudes." (p 2) Adult education, and in particular adult literacy teaching and learning, is much more than the sum of these parts.

Critical research frameworks magnify the significant differences between literacy for functional purposes and the kind of political literacies required to see beyond current thinking which often simplistically equates literacy skill with employability. The research we undertake to progress thinking about the nexus between literacy use, disempowering practices and in/equality in all their forms must be based on principles which acknowledge the socially produced ways in which particular forms of literacy are valued above others and how different social groups benefit in this process.

In this study an idealized research framework underpinned by notions of explicit ideology, ethical responsibility to participants and a collaborative mode of investigation set up many tensions which were often not easily resolved in practice. To forestall some of these problems I used a reflexive approach to the research and incorporated strategies which made public the values guiding my research decisions. The process was subjected to scrutiny by colleagues and the participating teacher as it evolved. In taking these steps I moved away from a paradigm that had shaped much of my previous learning and social life. It felt uncomfortable and it challenged some deeply embedded beliefs I had acquired about "proper" research which remain free of any researcher influence. The results of this study were not intended to have predictive power. My analyses offer insights into how a teacher's questions structure participation in one adult literacy classroom. To be of use to other practitioners the analyses must make explicit the values and practices of the research process, the dilemmas posed for me as a researcher, how I resolved these dilemmas and how, in resolving them, I also influenced the outcomes of the study.

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Teaching and Learning

TEACHING AND LEARNING

At one time, it was commonly believed that the learner was passive throughout the learning process. Learning was conceived of as strictly a cognitive process; the learners emotions, the social climate, and the situation or context in which learning occurred were considered irrelevant. Knowledge was simply transferred from the teacher to the learner. Consequently, most research was conducted from a teaching perspective.

There is increasing recognition, however, that the learner is quite active in the learning process. In fact, studies investigating situated cognition are challenging the belief that any body of knowledge can be transferred wholly intact from one person to another without undergoing major intrapersonal reconstruction. Consequently, many researchers now consider the learner to be the participant who actually determines whether learning truly occurs. Thus, current research is often focused on the learner; in fact, six of the seven studies in this section are learner focused.

Essential to this shift toward the learner is a holistic approach to the process of teaching and learning. Personal change involving the whole person is equated with learning. The teacher's role in accord with this approach has remained the same as to its responsibility to the learner; what has changed is our understanding of what it takes to fulfill that role. We are now aware that a solid knowledge of our subject matter is no longer sufficient. Intimate knowledge about adults as learners, the social environments in which they live, and the climates in which they best learn is equally crucial to the role of bringing about learning.

Further, traditional teaching skills geared toward methodology and curriculum development generally pertain only to the cognitive domain of learning. Effective teaching must address learning in all three separate domains: cognitive--involving the use of the learner's mental functions; affective--involving the psycho-emotional and social experiences of the learner; and skill--the learner's ability to use or apply knowledge. Hence research literature abounds with studies representative of each domain. A few examples of cognitive studies are those concerning learning styles, teaching styles, situated cognition, brain dominance, intelligence, and reflective learning. The affective domain studies address such topics as personal growth and development, self-directedness, group dynamics, values, barriers to learning, and making learning meaningful. Skill development deals generally with experiential and hands-on learning, learning occurring beyond the classroom, psychomotor skills, and technical workforce training. It must be realized, however, that these domains do not function independent of each other. All three factor into a person's readiness to learn; thus, the ability to assess learner-readiness with respect to each domain is crucial to helping the learner learn.

In all of this, teaching adults is now recognized as an awesome task. The comment that only the humble can truly teach adults is worth pondering. Undoubtedly, research studies on teaching and learning, such as those reported in this section, are indispensable to practitioners in the field of Adult Education.

Meaning-making is the focus of the study by A. Becker in this section. According to Becker, meaning-making in the learning process ranges along a continuum that moves from simply memorizing knowledge, to understanding it, and then to a level of using it. In his study of at-risk adult students he observes the commonality of their inability to transcend beliefs rooted in knowledge that has no personal meaning beyond rote memorization. Distance education is the content of C. A. Burkhart-Kriesel's study. Satellite-delivered classrooms are being piloted as a possible viable solution to the extrinsic learning barrier of geographic distance. However, with every innovative solution must come evaluation studies. In this study, Burkhart-Kriesel has investigated and weighed the trade-off of social interaction in Adult Distance Education. A. Frank's research results are relevant to adult education practitioners in the health related fields. He has proposed a model for assessing readiness for self-direction in health learning. C. A. Mealman's study serves to increase adult educators' awareness of incidental learning, and how such learning can impede or enhance learning objectives. Six specific areas of application are addressed. The study by R. Taylor in this section also addresses incidental learning. However, whereas Mealman's was conducted in a formal non-traditional degree program, R. Taylor

conducted his study in the informal context of a local community. The results of Taylor's study suggest the use of informal and incidental learning in community health education, raising environmental awareness and changing community attitudes. L. E. Miller has measured the average cognition level at which most adult educators are teaching their students. The concern is whether educators are teaching adults at cognitive levels appropriate to their current workplace functioning. B. N. Pike has done an ethnographic action research study of undergraduate adult learners in an institutional framework. Several substantive outcomes regarding the facilitation of adult learning in such a context have been derived from this study.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING SKILLS FOR THE NON-TRADITIONAL ADULT: AN INVESTIGATION OF MEANING-MAKING IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE READING AND STUDY SKILLS COURSE

Karen A. Becker, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

The underlying problem that shapes the central research question stems from why non-traditional at-risk students do not display a deeper, more personal understanding of concepts presented in a reading and study skills course in the department of developmental education in a mid-west community college. Based on Erickson's model for descriptive adequacy (1982), students' meaning-making processes were inferred based on data generated both during and after the course. Five case studies were completed to follow up on students' "college success" after the course.

An applied Model of the Development of Learning Perceptions (the cognitive domain) and Skills (the behavioral domain) of non-traditional students resulted. The model's three perspectives are developmental, although somewhat linear. Students with the first perspective are ultimately concerned with retaining decontextualized facts, while student with the second perspective metacognitively begin to retain facts. Within the last perspective, students have learned to internalize information in a seemingly sub-conscious manner. The implications highlight the three perspectives of personal meaning-making with regard to the role of 1) the instructor, 2) time investment, 3) the rite of passage perception, and 4) school/non-school learning.

INTRODUCTION

The driving motivation for this study of meaning-making lies in the paradox between my goals for a reading and study skills course -- 1) students learn course material, and 2) students develop an understanding about their own learning process -- and the students' apparent agenda to pass the course as if it were information that is not crucial to their success not only in my class but throughout their college careers. Meaning-making is defined as the internalization of information through connections made with the materials and cognitive strategies.

The larger conceptual framework for this study acknowledges the growing importance and need for study skills courses for students -- particularly the non-traditional students returning after a hiatus in schooling.

The underlying problem that shaped my central research question stems from why students do not display in this class a deeper, more personal understanding of the concepts introduced in the course. The goal for this study, then was to examine the following question: How is meaning-making part of the learning process for the non-traditional at-risk students in this course?

Based on Erickson's model for descriptive adequacy (1982), inferences were made about students' meaning-making based on data generated as part of the course, and data collected after the completion of the course. Data for this study was collected, then, in the following ways. First, all class sessions were audio-taped to document the classroom interactions in which the course was presented. At the beginning and end of the quarter students were asked to reflect on what they already knew about the course content. At the end of the quarter students were asked to voluntarily submit all their written work for analysis, including the students' worksheets, journals, test, and reading labs. Those students who submitted their work were asked to fill out a questionnaire during the following quarter. The questionnaire was designed to help identify the changes in skills and attitudes as a result of the course. Case study interviews were conducted to follow up on the continued meaning-making process of the course concepts of five students and to triangulate my inferences about individuals' personal meaning-making formed during preliminary analysis of students' course work. Although in qualitative research it is customary to collect and analyze data simultaneously (Erickson, 1986; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Spradley, 1980), data analysis began after the course had been completed and the final grades had been

submitted. Once the case study data was analyzed and the learning perception model was conceptualized, a member check was conducted with each case study participant. This was done in order to check the accuracy of both the facts reported and the interpretations made regarding the individual and collective learning processes as college success was analyzed.

The definition for "college success" is built on two inter-related goals: 1) students learn course material, and 2) students develop an understanding about their own learning process. The first goal can be measured by traditional behavioral means, i.e., worksheets, tests, etc. The second goal is affective and more subtle, falling within the cognitive domain. As a developmental process, this goal can be assessed through more individualized methods, i.e., journals, essays, class participation, and interviews. The inter-relationship of these two goals forms the basis for both the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study.

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 1 is offered to show the similarities of the learning theories and concepts of knowledge that form both the conceptual and theoretical framework which will be discussed in this section.

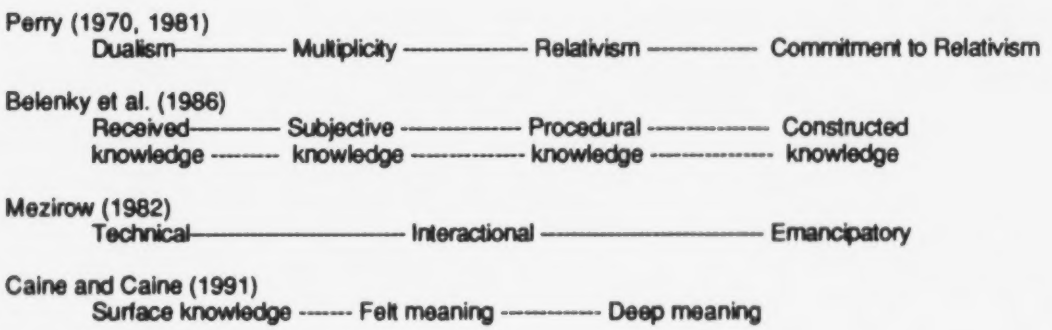
Perry (1970, 1981)
Dualism Multiplicity Relativism Commitment to Relativism
Belenky et al. (1986)
Received knowledge Subjective knowledge Procedural knowledge Constructed knowledge
Mezirow (1982)
Technical Interactional Emancipatory
Caine and Caine (1991)
Surface knowledge Felt meaning Deep meaning

Figure 1.

In believing that students are ultimately responsible for constructing their own meanings, the scheme of adult cognitive and ethical development described by William G. Perry, Jr. (1970, 1981) is crucial to this discussion of adult learning processes over time. Perry is recognized for balancing the cognitive domain with the emotional when considering human development. Perry and his colleagues at Harvard in the late sixties interviewed and observed one hundred college students regarding their structuring of meanings to determine the students' perceptions and methods of learning (Perry, 1970). The students' recursive interpretations of their lives as they experienced college year by year revealed a logical progression which Perry reports as nine "positions" and the subsequent "transitions" between each position, ranging from "Dualism" to "Relativism."

While nearly all Perry's informants were male, Mary Field Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule (1986) studied all females in a similar way using Perry's scheme as a basis. Belenky and associates similarly identified four perspectives among college women that coincide with the positions and transitions Perry established. In the following section I will discuss learning theories and concepts of knowledge based on an cumulative interpretation of the schemes Perry and Belenky et al. established. These schemes correlate with a) Jack Mezirow's (1982) critical theory of adult learning, b) Caine and Caine (1991) description of learning based on a model of information processing as well as and c) Malcolm Knowles' (1990) description of adult learners.

The first two positions discussed by both Perry and Belenky et al. involve decreasing degrees of Dualism in which students first see information as either Good or Bad, Right or Wrong, or Us

versus Them. For these students, knowledge is quantitative and experienced through "Authority," and test scores. Belenky et al., call this "received knowledge" in that students do little with new information, except to memorize it. Caine and Caine (1991) refer to this as "surface knowledge" which is "content devoid of significance to the learner" (p. 93). Knowles (1990), the adult educator, explains that previous experience with school and learning form mental habits, biases, and presuppositions that may result in close-mindedness and/or dependence on the teacher for all information. Similarly, Mezirow (1982), in his critical theory of adult learning, envisions three distinct forms of learning. The first, "technical learning" involves the search for regularities and predictability of learning alternatives through observation. The next steps along the continuum however involves more introspection.

Working away from Dualism, students move into Multiplicity (Perry, 1970) or "subjective knowledge" (Belenky et al., 1986). The students begin to accept that there are differing opinions and begin to trust their "inner voice" with regard to what they are learning in classes (Belenky et al., 1986). Caine and Caine (1991) include in this middle ground "felt meaning" in which emotions and cognition come together when connections are perceived by the learners.

"Relativism," Perry's fourth through fifth positions, find the students placing value on the differing opinions they encounter from teachers, fellow students, and texts. At this point, knowledge becomes qualitative and context-specific as students begin to apply "procedural knowledge" (Belenky et al., 1986) to reason through beliefs. These positions correlate with Knowles' (1990) characteristic of adults' need to know and the learner's self-concepts. Further down on Figure 1, the second form of adult learning discussed by Mezirow (1982), the interactional, is reminiscent of Perry's Relativism. As students read and interact in the classroom, they become aware of others' opinions as valid sources of thinking.

The transition through the last four positions of Perry's scheme of intellectual development is characterized by students developing a "Commitment to Relativism" (1970). The students become aware of the risk involved in making choices, while simultaneously becoming invested in making meaning in the world. Here ownership and empowerment are major components in the learner's process of becoming an efficient learner through meaningful learning. This coincides with Mezirow's (1982) third and last domain of learning -- "emancipatory." The intrinsic motivation that underlies Knowles' (1990) assumptions about the learner is crucial to the development of "Commitment to Relativism" as well. Belenky and associates appropriately call this "constructed knowledge because student are no longer memorizing random data, but interpreting and constructing their own schema for remembering and using the information. Caine and Caine (1991) refer to this phenomenon as creating "deep meaning."

FINDINGS

There are three developmental perspectives in the Model of Learning Perceptions and Skills which resulted from the data analysis. Students with the first perspective are ultimately concerned with retaining decontextualized facts, while the students with the second perspective metacognitively begin working on *how* to retain facts. Lastly, those at with the third perspective have learned to processes information in a sub-conscious manner having internalized their learning process. In this final perspective, if students begin to struggle to learn material they switch into a self-monitoring mode of "this is when I need to be learning," and with varying degrees of effort, automaticity, and metacognition can internalize material. Bransford and Vye (1989) support this overall model by stating, "A useful way to think about meaningful learning is to view it as a transition from memory to action" (p. 192).

This model embodies two concepts -- perception and skill. The first operates within the cognitive domain, while the latter functions within the behavioral domain. While the model's three perspectives are developmental and somewhat linear, non-traditional students work to varying degrees in both domains. A tension exists when non-traditional students who are acting within the third perspective must function within a pedagogical context where the behavioral domain is dominant, i.e., schools. Traditionally, schools cater to the needs of students at the first perspective. Once students begin to engage learning with the third perspective they are less

likely to exclusively operate within the behavioral domain again. That is, although students using the third perspective may engage in some of the same behaviors as those with other perspectives, the cognitive elements of their learning processes are developed to the point that pure surface learning never manifests itself in the same way.

An exception to this exists when non-traditional students are confronted with the following circumstances:

- the context for learning new information is very stressful,
- there is limited or no prior knowledge of the new topic,
- and/or the students are not interested, and in fact, are opposed to the information in such a way that integration of knowledge is impossible.

The relationship between cognitive/behavioral domains and perceptual development of the non-traditional student is brought into clearer focus when examined from the neuropsychological context discussed by Caine and Caine (1991) when elaborating on Paul MacLean's "Triune Brain Theory" (1969, 1978).

"TRIUNE BRAIN THEORY" AND THE NON-TRADITIONAL LEARNER'S DEVELOPMENT

Paul MacLean, (1969, 1978) popularized the notion that the human brain is actually three brains in one. MacLean, the former director of the Laboratory of the Brain and Behavior at the U.S. National Institute of Mental Health, seems to believe, as I do, that the development of learning patterns coincides with the growth and reliance on the hierarchical structures in the brain. MacLean's model, along with other similar models (Ornstein and Thompson, 1984), is based on an evolutionary development of the brain.

In the first perspective of the Model of Learning Perceptions and Skills, when students are focused on randomly storing facts, they are functioning from the reptilian brain. This small portion of the brain located at the stem of the brain is concerned primarily with survival behaviors, such as the "fight or flight instinct." This is of interest to educators because of its automaticity and its resistance to change (Caine and Caine, 1991). The reptilian brain houses our fears and an "us versus them," "right versus wrong" mentality. Perry's developmental scheme contains these characteristics in the first positions of Duality. Students functioning from the reptilian brain are using their survival instincts, which is to memorize. The reptilian brain functions ritualistically, meaning that if something works it is likely to be repeated and not changed. Thus, when memorizing "works" -- that is getting the facts from the class to the test, students are not likely to change their technique of rote memorization.

It isn't until the second part of the brain kicks in that students may realize that there is more to learning than merely repetitiously retaining facts. These students have employed the limbic system which houses the emotions. Thus learning becomes more internally grounded as awareness about learning or metacognition are awakened. The students start to look at the world around them as they would in Perry's development at the positions of Multiplicity and Relativism. Caine and Caine (1991), in describing MacLean's triune brain model, point out that the limbic system can coordinate both internal and external messages, thus inhibiting the reptilian brain from ritualistically reacting to fear. Given this, the ritual or habit of rote memorization is put aside in lieu of meaningful learning.

The neocortex, or the "thinking brain," is the outer portion of the brain constituting five-sixths of the human brain (Caine and Caine, 1991). Within this portion of the brain, just inside the forehead, is the prefrontal cortex responsible, neuropsychologists are finding, for "adaptive behaviors." Rather than working from "reactive behaviors" of the reptilian brain, the adaptive behaviors allow the capacity for logical and formal operational thinking to increase. When functioning from this larger part of the brain, students can plan, analyze, sequence, and learn from errors (Caine and Caine, 1991). Perry's positions of Relativism and Commitment to Relativism are recognizable due to this brain's function of empathy and compassion. Thus it is in learning with these human and logical characteristics that facts are not seen as raw materials for a "learning machine" which are eventually rendered useless, but as "expressions of what people are capable of doing" and seen as meaningful and emancipatory to the learner.

IMPLICATIONS

The personal meaning-making processes for the non-traditional at-risk adult learners seem to have roots in four issues: 1) the role of the instructor, 2) the role of time investment, 3) the rite of passage beliefs surrounding school, and 4) school/non-school learning.

First, the role of the instructor is clearly important to all the students interviewed for this study. Regardless of their perception of learning or their skill level, all participants regarded the instructor as an information-giver to some degree. The instructor was also seen as being responsible for creating appropriate learning environments that promote new thinking for the students. Several participants mentioned being uncomfortable with an instructor who would tell them what was wrong with their work or thinking, but offer no assistance in how to improve or correct it. Participants felt that it was important for the instructor to treat the learners as adults, relating information to real-life experiences. Interestingly, most informants viewed testing as a necessary part of the learning process, though they had preferences as to whether the tests were objective or essay/papers.

Secondly, the role of the time students perceive they should invest in school is indicative of the perceptions the student had about learning. The students with the first perspective views school as a means to an end, thus the less time and effort spent on school the better, while the students with the middle perspective, begin to see that by improving their learning strategies more efficient and meaningful studying results. In the third perspective, the learner learns with such ease that time is not a major issue.

Closely related to the third issue of time investment students' beliefs about school as a "rite of passage." This issue speaks to students' motivation and drive, perhaps even their interest or involvement in the courses taken. It seems that students with the first perspective see school as a hurdle on the way to getting a better job. The students with the second perspective are more likely to hold onto the "Protestant work ethic," seeing college as a necessary hurdle. Students with the third perspective envision college as not only a way of gaining a higher degree or a better job, but as part of a life-long learning process.

Lastly, most complex is the issue of learning in school and non-school setting. The findings of this study prompt questions about how settings both in and out of school promote and/or inhibit learning in its most meaningful way. This gets more complex when considering how school learning may dampen appetites for learning in everyday life, or more hopefully, how life-long learning lends itself to deeper levels of learning in school settings.

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TRADE-OFFS: SOCIAL INTERACTION IN ADULT DISTANCE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore and analyze remote off-campus students' perceptions of a qualitative case study, seven students were interviewed and observed in the spring of 1992 at two different remote sites. During the interpretative analysis classroom social interaction "trade-offs" were recognized as a broad underlying theme. It reflected an aspect of this method of education, with face-to-face interaction being the "pawn" in the trade. The costs associated with classroom social interaction in a remote satellite delivered class included: 1) the loss of spontaneous interaction with the instructor, 2) inappropriate classroom behavior by on-site students, 3) the exclusion of the student from the on-site and on-campus groups, and 4) isolation from the academic program and university. The benefits seen by the students were: 1) collegial interaction with the instructor, 2) the opportunity for a high level of involvement in the educational experience, 3) on-site student camaraderie, and 4) a feeling of affiliation with the "CorpNet" program. For the practitioner, the implications of the costs and benefits in satellite delivered classroom environments are explored.

Social interaction in distance education traditionally described a process between the student and instructor that was mediated via correspondence. Unfortunately this method of delivery has been plagued with problems associated with the adult student's sense of isolation and lack of affiliation contributing to drop out rates in correspondence courses of between 40 to 90 percent (Booth, 1984; Persons & Catchpole, 1987; Holm, 1988).

To combat the problems associated with slow teacher-student communications, distance education has embraced educational technology. Satellite delivery using a one-way video two-way audio interactive satellite system has been gaining in interest and popularity. This system comes close to replicating a "real classroom" environment for the off-campus student including the availability for increased social interaction. For the off-campus student this new delivery method has expanded an avenue for social interaction, both student-to-student and student-to-instructor, within the institutional setting. It is unique because it offers the student and teacher the opportunity for immediate social interaction bridging the gap of distance. The enhanced opportunity for social interaction is a new phenomenon for distance education that may help lower abnormally high drop out rates. The distance student's sense of isolation and affiliation, which have been linked to the slow communication process of traditional correspondence distance education, may now be altered (Person & Catchpole, 1987). Further exploration of classroom social interaction was needed to discover the off-campus student's interpretation of this phenomenon.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The primary question to be answered in this research study was: For an adult student enrolled in an off-campus satellite delivered graduate class, how does classroom social interaction effect his or her feelings concerning:

- program participation?
- how well they are learning?
- their social integration with the classroom setting?
- their integration within the academic institution?

A secondary question was: How can interaction be used to better meet student needs to:

- gain a stronger commitment to complete the class?
- improve learning?
- feel more a part of the class?
- feel more a part of the program and university?

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The exploratory nature of the research questions was the driving force behind the development of a qualitative case study of adults enrolled in a satellite delivered (one-way video, two-way audio) graduate class organized by the University of Nebraska. In the spring of 1992 seven adult students were interviewed at two different remote locations, one being an urban worksite and the other a rural regional educational institution.

METHODS

The interviews followed the guidelines established by McCracken (1988) for a long interview. Following the developed protocol for the students and the instructor, the interviews were tape recorded and later transcribed verbatim. After the data had been reviewed and interpretations made, written member checks were implemented. Additional data were obtained through multiple observations of the remote and on-site classroom environments where descriptions of the setting were recorded on an observation worksheet.

DATA ANALYSIS

There were three phases of interpretative analysis. In phase one the data were analyzed following Strauss and Corbin's (1990) procedures for open coding. After categories were collapsed and cases compared exploratory variables emerged under the categories of program participation, learning, social integration, and academic integration.

In the second phase of analysis the data were reexamined across cases looking at both the initial and collapsed categories. A broader theme, the informalization of the classroom environment, was proposed through exploratory variables that identified a different classroom atmosphere at the remote sites as a function of the instructor's absence.

In the third and final phase of analysis the data were again reexamined across the exploratory variables and themes identified in phase one and two. An underlying theme of "trade-offs" emerged. It reflected an aspect of this method of education, with face-to-face interaction being the "pawn" in the trade.

Coding of the interview data was organized by the use of a commercial software computer package, the Ethnograph (Seidel, 1988), designed for qualitative studies.

CLASSROOM SOCIAL INTERACTION TRADE-OFFS

Social interaction for the off-campus using satellite delivery was the fundamental pawn in an educational situation filled with potential costs and benefits as this student stated:

> I guess one thing you pretty much should know coming in to this program is that, or you should know, there are trade-offs. The trade-offs are that interaction, that ability to get to the teacher, the ability to get information when you need it. And what you get in the trade-off is the convenience of having things delivered to you and the ability to put classes around work, rather than work around classes. I think people who have had trouble with this, have kind of had trouble with that concept, with those concepts. This isn't a complete win/win situation for you.

Students experienced costs and benefits related to the impact of social interaction on learning. The two basic costs were: 1) the loss of spontaneous interaction with the instructor, and 2) inappropriate classroom behavior by on-site students (other students talking while the instructor was talking) . The key benefits influencing learning included: 1) collegial interaction with the instructor, and 2) the opportunity for a high level of involvement in the educational experience.

Students also experienced social interaction costs and benefits toward their feeling a part of the group. The primary cost was the exclusion of the student from the on-site and on-campus groups. The major benefit was the on-site student camaraderie.

Concerning their feelings of being a part of the academic program or university, the cost was the student's isolation from the academic program and university and the benefit was a feeling of affiliation with the "CorpNet" program, a division within the entity administering the distance education component of the University of Nebraska. A visual depiction of the trade-offs is found in Figure 1.

The four costs and four benefits in this situation represented critical trade-offs in classroom social interaction for the students in this study. As with all trade-offs, they were individually interpreted and "weighed" in the decision-making process. For example, several students mentioned that inappropriate on-site interaction (excessive talking) distracted from learning but the advantages of informally sharing information far out weighed the disadvantages.

However, one student did not feel this way. The interaction was so distracting for the student that it was only seen as a disadvantage.

In summary, classroom social interaction was perceived by students as having the potential to either enhance or detract from their: 1) commitment to complete the class, 2) ability to learn, 3) capacity to feel a part of the class group, and 4) capacity to feel a part of the academic program or university.

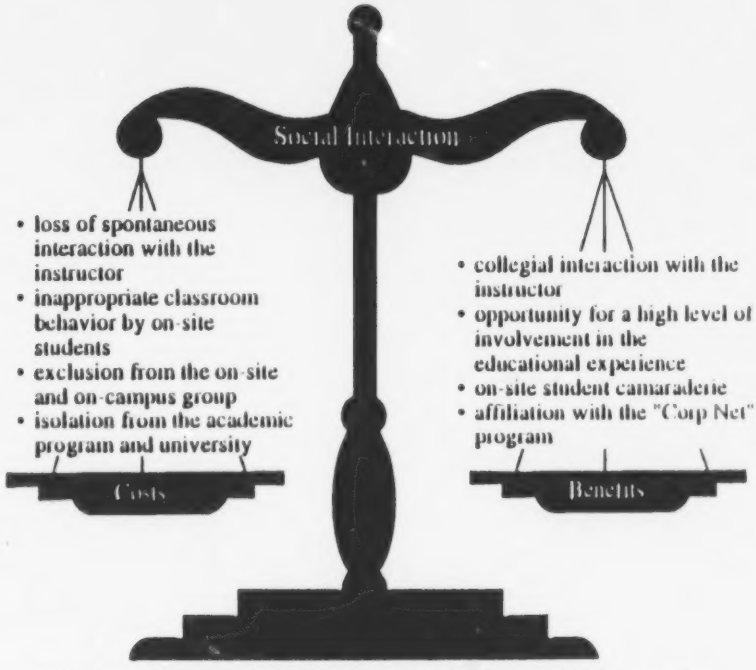
Social Interaction
• loss of spontaneous interaction with the instructor
• inappropriate classroom behavior by on-site students
• exclusion from the on-site and on-campus group
• isolation from the academic program and university
Costs
• collegial interaction with the instructor
• opportunity for a high level of involvement in the educational experience
• on-site student camaraderie
• affiliation with the "Corp Net" program
Benefits

FIG. 1. The Trade-Offs Associated with Social Interaction in a Remote Satellite Delivered Class

CONCLUSION

Social interaction in this study was seen as a core phenomenon impacting many aspects of the classroom environment at a off-campus satellite delivered site. Anything behavioral or mechanical that can be designed to make the communication process easier within the satellite delivered class will positively impact the student's desire to complete the course.

One of the basic ways social interaction impacted the learning process was through the ability of students to gain new information from others that could be applied in the work setting. Interaction's "darker side" was also noted when students interacted too much on-site prohibiting others from listening to the instructor. This is a situation unique to the remote classroom environment which should be acknowledged. Instructors can counteract this tendency by calling on remote student periodically by name. The students in this study acknowledged, although grudgingly, that this type of increased instructor interaction would help keep informal interaction to a minimum eliminating the problem of inappropriate exchanges. Students at the same remote site play an influential role in making the individual student feel like a part of the class. Informal socializing within the group helps form a "bond", making it easier for them to feel a part of the class. Formally, the students also feel an increase in enjoyment by supporting each other as impromptu tutors when questions arise. When the camaraderie is absent and the student is alienated, the inability to feel a part of the class can substantially reduce the student's enjoyment.

For adults in this setting, the social classroom interaction may help to bridge the gap of distance for the student, filling a void created by the absence of the instructor. Because of the many benefits to students, opportunities for group settings should be encouraged by educational coordinators involved in distance education.

When it came to the feeling of being apart of the institution, there was a sense of frustration and loss. The students acknowledged that they did not expect to feel a part of the institution in the same way that an on-campus student would feel, yet in their own way they wanted to be included. If they felt a part of the university, it was the "CorpNet" program that provided the link. Their affiliation with this entity helped them feel like they were a part of a larger organization.

There may be a misconception within the academic community that adults do not care about feeling a part of the university. In an interview with the instructor for the course, this opinion was expressed. However, extensive research on traditional students and more limited research on adult students would indicate that this is not the case. Feelings of being a part of the institution or being affiliated have been shown to positively influence completion (Allen, 1990). The problem may be that institutional integration has always been defined automatically by undergraduate "standards". What should be done is to look at how adult students, and in this case those living in communities away from campus, can still be included in university life so that they feel a part of the academic institution.

As an educator it may be easy to take traditional classroom social interaction for granted. But in a satellite delivered class, taking social interaction for granted might is a mistake. It needs to be recognized as a unique phenomena requiring special attention because it has the potential to enhance or detract from the educational experience. The goal of the adult distance educator should be to not only acknowledge classroom social interaction's importance but to creatively facilitate positive student/student and student/instructor communication.

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HEALTH COMPETENCE AND LEARNER SELF-DIRECTEDNESS: A CONGRUENCY MODEL FOR ENHANCING TEACHING-LEARNING TRANSACTIONS IN HEALTH EDUCATION

Andrea Frank, M.S.

ABSTRACT

Spear and Mocker's (1984) concept of the organizing circumstance suggests that self-directed learners do not preplan their learning projects. Rather their learning approach is structured according to the limited alternatives available in their environment. The restricted number of program options offered to adult consumers of wellness programs frequently imposes just such "organizing circumstances."

To address the needs of learners who wish to make health behavior changes, the field of health education has created two predominant types of educational formats. The most common format is an intensive, highly-structured, teacher-lead group session. At the other end of the spectrum are self-help materials which might include the pamphlets, books, and home videos.

While organizations such as hospitals may offer a wide array of lifestyle change programs (weight loss, smoking cessation, stress management, exercise, etc.), they tend to offer a narrow range of program formats. Thus, many learners cannot choose a format that matches the level of self-direction they desire or which is appropriate to their circumstances. Since learners differ in their personal preferences and abilities to pursue self-direction in learning, and since health education teaching methods tend to recognize these differences only in the most rudimentary way, a broad zone of incongruence between learner needs and teaching practice can result which may then undermine the health education process.

It is therefore desirable to assess learner readiness for self-direction in health behavior change, and to recognize the importance of congruence in these teaching-learning transactions. A congruency model is proposed in which readiness for self-direction in health learning (RSDHL) is determined by the sum of learner self directedness (LSD) as a personality trait and health competence (HC). Health competence for the purposes of this model consists of an internal health locus of control (IHLOC) combined with context specific self-efficacy (SE). The challenge of linking this theoretical model to practice is addressed.

$$RSDHL = LSD + HC\ (IHLOC + SE)$$

INTRODUCTION

Self-help is the stated method of choice for most adults making voluntary health behavior changes. In general, a preference for self-help seems to indicate a desire for minimal teacher contact and unsupervised direction. For example, approximately half of pregnant women studied preferred books, media or themselves as their first source of information about pregnancy (Aaronson, 1988). In another nationwide study of smokers, only 35% preferred a group program with a leader while 62% preferred a self help approach (Spoth, 1991).

Despite learner preferences for self-direction, professionals involved in health education tend to favor teacher dominated methods. Levanthal (1984) states that many programs rely heavily on a *therapist and do not adequately teach self-regulation skills. For example, one study indicated that* only a minority of mental health and medical professionals regularly use self-help books as an integral part of patient education. (Starker, 1986). Furthermore, the most common educational intervention used in worksite health promotion programs is the group program. (Schwartz, 1987). This broad band of incongruence between what learners want and what programs provide is problematic. Such teaching-learning mismatches imply not only that the learner may require **more** latitude for self-direction than the process permits, but also creates the possibility that the learner might require **less** latitude and more structure or directedness than a teaching-learning transaction permits. In terms of changing health behavior Leventhal (1984) notes that while formal training may be unnecessary for some individuals, it may be insufficient for others, and Turk and Meichenbaum (1987) suggest that some learners may not have the skills, resources, temperament or outlook to help themselves while others may be too self-sufficient and independent to join a group, resenting and actively resisting any suggestions to do so.

The impact of teaching-learning mismatches on learning achievement has been demonstrated. In one study subjects in a quit smoking program indicated their preferences for the degree of structure, leader directiveness and control they desired. Subjects who received the program they preferred were more successful than those who were mismatched. (Leite, 1979). Studies in preventive dentistry also noted that discrepancy between patient and dentist preferences and expectations was related to a decrease in patient compliance with preventive health recommendations. (Levanthal, 1984). Since discrepant teaching-learning approaches seem to undermine the learning process, creating congruency between the teaching approach and the learner's readiness to engage in self directed health behavior change is important.

CONGRUENCY MODEL COMPONENTS

The congruency model posits several factors contributing to readiness for self directed health behavior change: learner self directedness and health competence. Health competence for purposes of this model consists of an internal health locus of control combined with situation specific perceptions of self efficacy.

LEARNER SELF-DIRECTEDNESS (LSD)

Psychological self-directedness is necessary for self-directed learning. (Long, 1990). According to Brockett and Hiemstra (1991), learner self-directedness emphasizes the personality characteristics of the learner and is related to the learner's desire or preference for assuming responsibility for learning. This contrasts with self-directed learning as an instructional process in which the learner has primary responsibility for planning, implementing and evaluating the learning experience. Brockett and Hiemstra explain that optimal learning conditions result when there is a congruence between learner self direction and the extent to which self directed learning is possible in a given situation. Congruency enhances success and incongruency frustrates it. This congruency model proposes that a trait for learner self direction would predispose one to self-directed information seeking and skill-building.

HEALTH LOCUS OF CONTROL (HLOC)

In the adult education literature, findings on the relationship between locus of control and learner self-directedness are contradictory; thus no definitive statements about those relationships can be made. (Caffarella and O'Donnell, 1987). However, the health education literature sheds more light on the relationship. Many studies have shown that those with an internal locus of control are more likely to engage in behaviors that facilitate physical well-being, and that it may be useful to tailor treatments to individual differences in locus of control. (Wallston and Wallston, 1978). For example, weight loss participants were more successful when the program format was compatible with their HLOC (Wallston, et al, 1976) and a study of smoking cessation program participants yielded similar results (Marotta, 1983).

SELF EFFICACY

Self-efficacy is the conviction that one can successfully execute a given outcome. (Bandura, et. al., 1977). In the context of health behavior it would apply to specific situations which reflected a learner's confidence that he or she could quit smoking, lose weight, maintain an exercise program, manage stress, etc. Self-efficacy scores reliably discriminate smokers from nonsmokers and recent quitters from long term quitters. (Schwartz, 1987). People who entertain doubts about their abilities seem to slacken their efforts in the face of difficulties, while those with strong self efficacy exert greater effort. (Marlatt, 1985) Together, self efficacy and an internal health locus of control provide learners with a sense of health competence. When learners are both committed and confident, they can be relatively self-directing. However, teacher support is indicated when there is a lack of commitment to the goals or a lack of confidence in the learner's ability to accomplish them. (Pratt, 1988).

THE CONGRUENCY MODEL

The congruency model is a combination of two main effects: learner self directedness and health competence. The combined force of these effects provides the teacher with an indication of the learner's readiness for self-directed health behavior change. Teaching-approaches can then be designed for congruence.

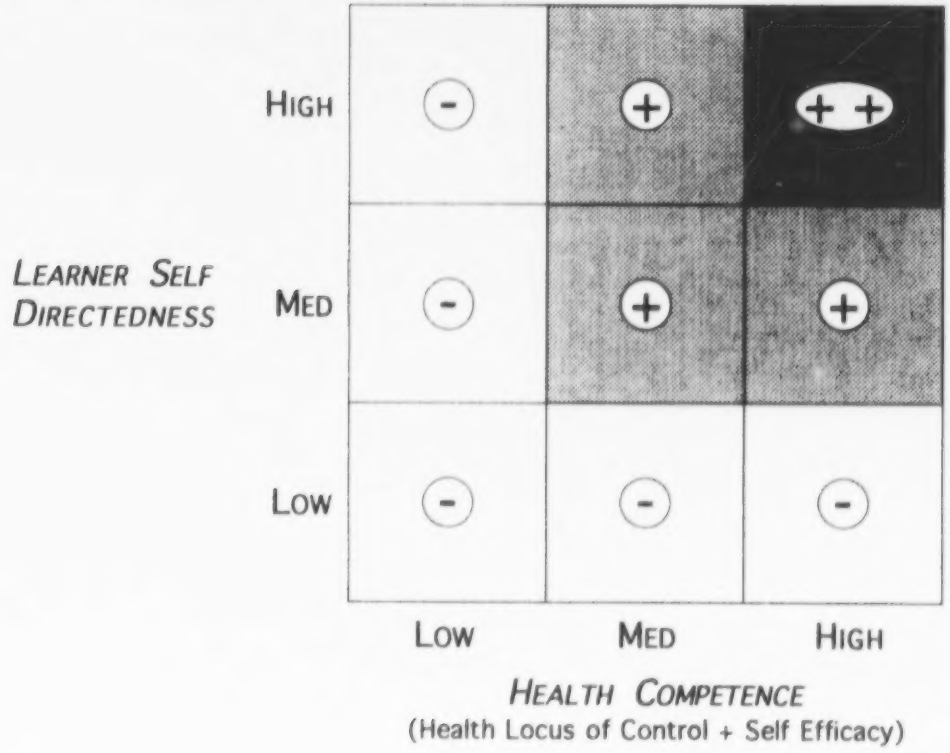
Two chief assumptions underlie the congruency model. First, it is assumed that learners are voluntarily taking action to change their health behavior. Second, it assumes that situation specificity is taken into account in determining health competence. For example, an overweight smoker might have high health competence in relation to undertaking a smoking cessation attempt, but low health competence in relation to weight reduction.

The congruency model proposes a 3 x 3 grid of learner self directedness by health competence. In any case where health competence is low, regardless of degree of learner self directedness, it is proposed that self directed approaches would be incongruent with learner needs. Likewise, regardless of the degree of health competence, self directed approaches would be incompatible with learner needs when learner self directedness is low. These areas are indicated by a "-" within the grid cells. Where health competence and learner self directedness are either medium or high, compatibility between self directed teaching approaches and learner needs would be high. These areas are indicated with a "+" within the grid cells. Learners who rank high in both self directedness and health competence represent the pinnacle of congruence, and are most likely to make successful health behavior changes with skeletal or no teacher assistance. This area of the grid is indicated by a "++" within the grid cell. The model appears on the following page and can be summarized by the following formula: ***RSDHL = LSD + HC (IHLOC + SE)*** - (where readiness for self directed health learning = learner self directedness + health competence, and where health competence is the sum of internal health locus of control plus self efficacy).

MODEL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

More than a decade ago recommendations were made to conduct research on congruency between teaching-learning transactions and locus of control. It was advocated that comparisons should be made between approaches where internals would be enrolled in more independent, self-regulated programs and externals would receive more support from others. (Phares, 1976) Shortly thereafter health educators were urged to begin tailoring their programs to learners' generalized expectancies regarding locus of control. In such a program, an internal orientation would involve more choices and more emphasis on individual responsibility. Externally oriented programs might stress reliance on social support systems and the importance to the individual of compliance with health professional's instructions. (Wallston and Wallston, 1978).

A Congruency Model For Suitability Of Self Directed Learning In Health Behavior Change



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A major challenge presented by the model is to adapt teaching methods to fit along a continuum of self direction. Self-direction is increasingly being viewed as an attribute that may be present in varying degrees. In practice, this suggests educators can adapt their strategies to the different levels of self-direction preferences learners exhibit in various situations. This would create a teacher-learner control continuum with varying levels of independence. (Candy, 1991).

The Purdue Stepped Model of Health Promotion and Disease Prevention (Black, et al., 1985) presents one such scenario. It proposes five levels of programming, ranging from minimal intervention, to bibliotherapy or CAI, phone counseling, group health education, and individual counseling. With the Purdue model, the level of instruction the learner receives is based upon cost and there is no determination of learner needs or congruency of teaching-learning approaches.

The congruency model seeks to remedy this problem by assessing learner self directedness and health competence. A variety of instruments exist to facilitate this process. Learner self-directedness might be measured in a pre-program assessment by the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory (Oddi, et. al., 1990). Among the tools available to measure health locus of control are the MHLOC scale (Cassey, 1992), and a variety of additional r situation specific locus of control tools to measure exercise LOC (Noland, 1981), alcohol LOC(Johnson & Reszka, 1986), and prenatal LOC, utilizing the Fetal Locus of Control Scale (Labs & Wurtele, 1986). Self efficacy is more difficult to measure because it is a situation specific trait that may differ by magnitude, generality or strength. (Bandura, et al, 1977). However, the recent development of Task-Associated Self-Perception Charting (TASC) shows great promise for adaptability to a variety of situations and constructs, such as self efficacy, outcome expectancy, etc. (Kingery, et. al. 1992).

The possibility of tracking learners by program congruence based upon pre-screening measures presents some additional dilemmas. What will happen if a learner appears to be a poor candidate for a self-help program but is quite insistent upon enrolling in the program anyway? Determining what instrument values correlate to the low, medium and high 3x3 grid boxes also needs to be addressed.

In conclusion, Green et al. (1980) remind us that many practitioners lose sight of the fact that an educational method is only as effective as its appropriate application. Ideally, a perfect fit should exist between a learner's and teacher's goals, between the strategies and resources offered by the other, and between the criteria of attainment which each finds acceptable. (Moore, 1986). The Congruency Model is one attempt to strike such a balance.

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INCIDENTAL LEARNING BY ADULTS IN A NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE PROGRAM: A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to address two questions: (1) What was the nature of student's incidental learning? (2) What role did incidental learning play in students' experience in the nontraditional adult degree completion program? Using a naturalistic research design, the researcher attempted to understand the phenomena from the student's perspective. One important finding was that students did not make distinctions between incidental and intentional or formal learning. Secondly, incidental and intentional learning played equally important roles in their overall experience. The program design seemed to foster a great deal of incidental learning by including instructional and learning activities such as small-group interaction in class, course assignments which had a degree of flexibility, listening to stories related by peers, applying learning in work and personal contexts, instructor facilitated large group discussions, and applied research assignments. Facilitators and program developers need to consider the ramifications of applying certain adult education principles. One area which deserves attention is the assessment of learning, since incidental learning is rarely assessed and included in the evaluation of students' overall learning.

INTRODUCTION

As a facilitator in an adult degree program, this researcher observed students learning things which were not part of the planned curriculum. Many of these learning outcomes seemed to be significant to students and usually evoked a tremendous amount of enthusiasm. As a result of repeated observations such as this, the researcher decided to reflect upon his own learning in formal contexts; the researcher concluded that, indeed, he too had often learned many things of great value in addition to the stated course objectives. Out of both personal and professional experience came a passionate desire to pursue further research. This paper describes a research study conducted which attempts to more fully understand incidental learning.

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

Several adult educators have addressed incidental learning in the literature, but the researcher could not locate any research on incidental learning in adult degree programs.

Brookfield (1986) shed some light on this subject by stating, "the attainment of previously established objectives is the primary criterion for judging the program's worth. Therefore, unplanned, serendipitous learning outcomes are relegated to secondary importance" (p. 217). However, Jones (1982) suggested that the unintended consequences of a learning situation are often more important to the learner than the original objectives which receive primary attention. Lastly, Apps (1978) captured many ideas which were at the heart of this research:

> Often overlooked is the learning that is not planned, which we call incidental learning... Incidental learning usually occurs when we are involved in planned learning. We learn things in addition to what has been planned. Unfortunately our society has not recognized the importance of incidental learning; in fact it has either ignored it, on the one hand, or totally discounted it, on the other. Many persons are of the attitude that unless learning is planned, that is you set out to learn some specific thing, you really haven't learned anything.(p. 3)

DEFINITION

Fodor (1983) offered these definitions: "a natural and individual response to the learning experience as a whole; learning not intended as part of a course" (p. 4); learning that "included skills, attitudes, and information which the participants did not intend to acquire from the course,

but nevertheless did learn" (p. 10). The researcher defined incidental learning as planned, unplanned and unanticipated learning outcomes not identified as part of the formal curriculum that students obtain while participating in the program.

RESEARCH FOCUS

Two general and seven specific questions (which are discussed under findings) guided this inquiry and served as the primary focus: What is the nature of the incidental learning experienced by students pursuing the bachelor's degree in a nontraditional degree program? And what role did incidental learning play in the students' experience in the program?

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

One primary objective of this study was to understand a phenomenon from the perspective of the student. Merriam and Simpson (1984) stated that "ethnographic techniques are the methods researchers use to uncover the social order and meaning a setting or situation has for the people actually participating in it" (p. 91). The researcher used many of the procedures described by Lincoln and Guba (1985), especially those found in chapters 9 and 11 of their book, Naturalistic Inquiry.

A case study approach was used to study a cohort of19 adult students enrolled in an undergraduate degree completion program. One mode of triangulation, different methods, was employed which included: (1) Interviewing 15 of the 19 students, (2) Analyzing students' learning journal entries, and (3) participant/observation of about six months of four hour class sessions which included five courses.

Research data collection and analysis occurred on an on-going basis during three phases of study: (1) Orientation and Overview, (2) Focused Exploration, (3) Member Check. Trustworthiness was established by carrying out the following processes: Prolonged Engagement; Triangulation; Negative Case Analysis; Referential Adequacy Materials; Member Checks; Thick Description; Audit Trail; Peer Debriefing; Reflexive Journal.

CONTEXTUAL VARIABLES

INSTITUTION AND PROGRAM

The study was conducted in a private, Type IIA, institution that primarily serves adult students in a major metropolitan area. The Bachelor's Degree Completion Program was developed especially for the working adult student and is one of 65 similar programs at private colleges in the United States. Eleven courses and a research project, totaling 48 quarter hours were offered sequentially in the Management concentration. Clusters of students enroll and take the entire sequence of courses together. About 90% of the students are employed full time; the mean age is about 37 with 60% women.

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF RESULTS

The researcher determined that the dichotomy between incidental learning and intentional or formal learning cannot be maintained for adult students enrolled in this cluster group. Students did not make distinctions which would support the categorizing of learning outcomes into incidental and formal or planned by the institution or instructor. Students did not perceive incidental learning as not part of the curriculum. From students' perspectives a rope more accurately represents their learning. The strands comprising the rope (experience in the program, formal learning, incidental learning, previous learning, personal life, and current work experience) were tightly woven, being integrated and interacting with each other.

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Question 1 states: What are the incidental learning outcomes for the student?

1. Students gained competence with regard to learning-how-to-learn. The following were illustrations of learning-how-to-learn skill and knowledge which emerged from the results.
   a. Participants reported increased abilities to learn from each other, from the instructor and from other resource people. Students developed strategies to learn from varied instructional activities such as small group discussions, student presentations, structured group activities and instructor facilitated discussions.
   b. Students figured out how to fit this form of education into their life patterns.
   c. Students developed more understanding about how they learn and became more open to opportunities for learning.

2. Students learned about each others' organizations: what jobs others held, the kinds of problems experienced at their peers' organizations and the ways peers handled those problems, and the product or service provided by peers' organizations. Participants learned from peers' stories that were about specific work situations.

3. Students increased self-knowledge in areas such as self-awareness and better time management.

4. Students came to value life-long learning. For example, they have increased desire to read a variety of material; they are more likely to use research skills in future decision making situations; and they have goals to take additional courses, some of which lead to advanced degrees.

5. Students polished such life skills as writing, presenting oneself or one's ideas, and relating to others.

6. Students reported developing self-confidence.

7. Students reported learning certain content which was more specific to the courses. For example, they learned many details about each other's organizations in the "Organizational Analysis" course.

8. Students discussed their feelings associated with being involved in the program. The affective nature of learning was displayed, and it was apparent that feelings were an important part of their learning.

9. Students demonstrated that they understood many of the learning processes (and their involvement in those processes) associated with experiential education and experiential learning.

10. Students pursued idiosyncratic topics, and students expanded on curriculum in idiosyncratic ways.

Research Question 2 states: What forms or types of activities stimulate or are associated with incidental learning?

1. It seemed that small-group activities provided especially rich opportunities for incidental learning. Students reported that they felt free to pursue discussions which were relevant to them but not necessarily about the task which had been assigned by the instructor.

2. It also appeared that facilitator-led discussions, where individual examples were encouraged to be shared with the class, increased incidental learning possibilities.

3. Another variable which seemed to foster incidental learning was the climate that the facilitator developed. She encouraged students to bring in relevant printed material to share with classmates.

4. The research project which required extensive library/research work seemed to be related to students' becoming aware of interesting incidental material that they planned to pursue later.

5. The development of learning-how-to-learn skills and knowledge was fostered by the significant degree of responsibility placed with the students for their own learning.

6. Finally, the structure of the program which allowed students to individualize class assignments (with instructor guidance) and apply them to their personal and professional lives seemed to provide students with opportunities for incidental learning.

Research Question 3 States: What role do peers play in incidental learning?

It seemed that interaction with fellow classmates greatly influenced incidental learning. For example, participants often discussed how listening to each others' stories about life and work situations had been an important part of their own learning.

Research Question 4 States: What is the relative importance of incidentally learned material for the student?

Since students had difficulty separating the formal from the incidentally learned material, it was difficult to fully address this question. However, most students referred to one important aspect of the program (if not the most important thing) was the experience of other students and what they learned from their peers.

Research Question 5 States: In what ways do the instructor's expectations and behavior impact incidental learning?

It seemed that the instructor's valuing of incidental learning was related to the amount of it experienced by her students. For example, the extent to which the instructor was flexible with course assignments which allowed students to pursue questions and inquiry which captured their attention may have fostered or at least not discouraged incidental learning. Also, the instructional activities that the facilitator selected to use, and the execution of those, seemed to impact incidental learning possibilities. And how much the instructor deviated from the stated objectives or curriculum was related to the amount of incidental learning experienced by students.

Research Question 6 States: How does the course content influence the type of incidental learning?

There was some evidence that course content did influence certain type of incidental learning experienced by students. It was likely that students' would experience course specific incidental learning, that certain outcomes were more likely to occur as a result of being in one course rather than another.

Research Question 7 States: What are the barriers to incidental learning?

One barrier was the amount of time available for students to do the required assignments. Students had very limited time for class-related activities. They tended to focus on the course assignments, and they reported consciously trying not to get off on tangents or sidetracked. Another barrier to learning incidentally during small groups could be the extent to which members of those groups influenced the group to either focus or not focus on the particular task assigned to the extent of cutting off, perhaps potentially fruitful but nonetheless, seemingly irrelevant comments from peers.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Program Development and Assessment

It seems that the early program designers, who conceived of this form of adult degree completion program, unintentionally developed a program with features which encourages a great deal of incidental learning. Program developers or faculty who are creating curriculums may want to consider the impact that certain learning activities and climate, or learning culture, have on the learning outcomes that are typically realized by students. Also, there are implications for assessment of learning. Are only the formal, traditional objectives measured for level of attainment or is the curriculum expanded to include what this research has categorized as incidental? Measurement of learning outcomes may be more complex if one develops methods to measure incidental learning, especially if those outcomes comprise a significant portion of all learning in those courses.

There probably is a relationship between the course content the program purpose, and type of adult education program that would account for differences in expected incidental learning outcomes. Program planners could assess the extent which incidental learning is desirable within an educational format. Adult students will, no doubt, continue to learn material which is incidental, but course structure could produce barriers which may limit certain types of incidental learning. It seems to this author that as more educators employ the variety of "adult education practices" the likelihood of significant incidental learning occurring is great. Therefore, it is advised, so as to not frustrate students with inconsistent messages, that educators carefully consider the consequences of certain program features.

Facilitating or Teaching

Brookfield (1986) stated:

> Arguably, the most exciting, memorable, and profound moments in learning are those in which individuals stumble into insights and perceptions of which they had previously been aware. Such moments can rarely be planned beforehand in precise terms, though the facilitator can encourage a learning group culture that will make the likelihood of such moments occurring much stronger. (p. 220)

To what extent do facilitators of adult learning, as recommended by Brookfield, seek to develop or foster a climate or culture where incidental learning is likely to occur? He argues, and this author concurs, that both adult educators and adult learners should not perceive incidental learning as less valid than previously specified learning outcomes. A result, Brookfield stated, is that such dismissal, "may block off fruitful avenues of intellectual exploration and act against participants making meaningful connections between learning activities and their own experience" (p. 220). Another noted adult educator, Knowles (1980) (employing the use to learning contracts) encouraged ongoing negotiation with students about learning objectives, in part as a result of unanticipated learning outcomes, strategies or resources which might become known during the course of study. Other adult education leaders advocate for the use of certain practices with adult learners. This author raises one concern. Certain practices have merit and are attractive; however, one needs to understand the practice from the student's frame of reference.

This researcher suggests (in fairness to the participants) that the educator needs to be prepared to address, during the introduction/orientation, assessment and evaluation phases of formal learning, the full ramifications of establishing a climate conducive to incidental learning. Would it seem fair to assess and evaluate only the pre-determined objectives, for instance? If, as Jarvis (1987) suggested, certain incidental learning outcomes may remain unknown or at the preconscious level, what responsibility does an adult educator have in helping to bring those learning outcomes into a conscious level (perhaps through critical reflection and other strategies). Therefore, students could critically analyze that material and could articulate it for the purpose of both self and instructor assessment and evaluation?

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TEACHING FOR HIGHER LEVEL COGNITION IN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Larry E. Miller

ABSTRACT

The goal of many adult education programs is to encourage the learner to be able to solve their own problems or be wise decision makers. These processes would call for higher level cognition or critical thinking abilities. Do adult education instructional programs really teach learners to think at these higher levels of cognition? On Bloom's hierarchy, adult educators intended, on the average, to teach at the application level, but actual instruction tended to be higher than intended. Teachers with preparation in andragogy intended to teach at lower levels, but actually taught at higher levels than intended. Less experienced teachers intended and actually delivered instruction at higher levels than more experienced teachers. Higher levels of cognition were not frequently used.

INTRODUCTION

Work in America has evolved into new organizational structures which are extremely flatted to allow for greater scope of interaction and collaboration among workers having diverse functions and backgrounds. In order to face such frequent and dramatic work and life changes, people need to be able to detect, understand, and resolve unfamiliar problems. Doing so requires continued learning throughout life and using skills and knowledge flexibly. These challenges are heightening the importance of well-developed cognitive capacities at all organizational levels (Thomas, 1992).

Bloom et al. (1956) proposed a hierarchy for the cognitive domain of learning which represented a continuum from (the simple) knowledge through comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (the complex), and many have defined higher order cognition and critical thinking as the upper four more complex areas. The question posed by this research is what are the levels at which we are teaching adults? Specifically, the objectives were to describe the levels at which adult instructors intend to teach and actually teach, and to use selected student and teacher personological characteristics to attempt to explain any variability in the intended and actual levels of cognition.

While much research has been conducted in cognitive psychology, a paucity of studies existed related to adult education. The outcomes could have importance for adult educators because even if our content is technically correct and appropriate but adult educators are teaching at lower levels of cognition then they would not be preparing adults to function in the current work place. Educators need to reflect higher levels of cognition in their objectives, teaching activities, and evaluation methods to improve learning and utility of the instruction.

BODY OF PAPER

This paper synthesizes four research studies, conducted over five years, and examines adult education programs in agriculture and vocational education as delivered by three primary adult education agencies: extension, secondary vocational programs, and agribusiness. Each investigation was a descriptive study and ranged from surveys to ex post facto research with reliable and valid instruments and appropriate designs used. Descriptive, relational and inferential statistics were used to summarize and interpret the results. The primary variables investigated were "intended level of cognition," as measured by examination of lesson planning or interviews related to objectives of instruction, and "actual level of cognition," as measured by analysis of the actual instruction. Antecedent variables included personological characteristics of the learners and the teachers which were used to help explain any variability in the primary variables.

Miller & Kitinoja (1992) found that participants perceived that their achievement was relatively high and they had a positive attitude toward the content taught in the classes, but rated their resources for using the content and other outside influences as deterrents to using the knowledge. Participants only reported "some use" for what they had been taught. Teachers intended to teach, on the average, at the "application" level of cognition, but the actual level of instruction averaged near the "analysis" level. Only one class reached the "synthesis" level of cognition, several reached the "analysis" level but often skipped the application level.

Kitinoja & Miller (1989) reported the actual level of cognition at which instruction was delivered averaged higher than the reported intended level. "Use" of the instructional content was featured during teaching with liberal application of slides, video tapes and brochures. They found learners were relatively positive about their prior learning experiences, about their attitude toward innovation, and felt need indicating they were favorably disposed toward learning. Participants indicated they perceived that they had learned, and had a positive attitude toward the instruction and the innovation offered. Learner participation in instructional session tended to be high in Extension, secondary agriculture and agribusiness classes except for the very specialized courses in pesticide application. Highest levels of "use" of the innovations were reported for the more typical production agriculture instructional areas with lowest levels in computerized record keeping and analysis programs which would require the use of expensive computer hardware and software.

Bhardwaj & Miller (1990) found that Extension agents (teachers) had a positive attitude toward the use of educational objectives, saw their use more for evaluation than lesson planning, and those agents with more positive attitudes tended to plan to teach at higher levels of cognition. Bhardwaj (1989) reported that agents with many administrative and other duties tended to have lower attitudes that those without such duties, and those agents who made greater use of resource persons tended to have lower attitudes and taught at lower levels of cognition. Older and more experienced agents had more positive attitudes toward using objectives in program planning than younger and less experienced agents. Agents with pedagogical/andragogical training tended to have more positive attitudes than agents without, but tended to intend to teach at lower levels of cognition. Extension programs were planned for higher levels of cognition above just rote memory.

Miller & Ismail (1993) compared county agents with state specialist (university employees) Extension personnel. Agents and specialists intended to teach primarily at the comprehension and application levels, but actually taught at the analysis, synthesis and evaluation levels. Specialists intended to teach at higher levels than agents, but actually delivered at lower levels than intended; while agents delivered at higher levels than intended. Less experienced agents and specialists delivered instruction at higher levels than more experienced personnel. State specialists with greater proportions of research and resident instruction responsibilities tended to teach at lower levels than those with lesser proportions. Agents with greater administrative and other Extension responsibilities tended to teach at lower levels than those with lesser outside responsibilities. Specialists and agents with technical agriculture degrees intended to teach at higher levels of cognition than those with education or social science degrees, but did not deliver the actual instruction at significantly higher levels (Ismail, 1992).

Squire & Miller (1993) found that adult educators in vocational programs in Central Ohio intended to teach and evaluate at the analysis and synthesis levels of cognition. Those teachers who had participated in seminars or workshops on using educational objectives, which should include consideration of levels of cognition, tended to use them in program planning, in teaching and in student evaluation. Most teachers indicated that they had studied the use of educational objectives in their teacher certification program, but saw less use for such objectives in the teaching function than in the planning or evaluation functions. Teachers perceived that they were not stakeholders in designing the vocational education programs. They indicated they were not satisfied with the current status of adult vocational education programs, but were optimistic about the future of such programs. Some teachers did not prepare any lesson plans to guide the instructional process. Recommendations were made for teacher educators and supervisory personnel to begin to design preservice and inservice programs to prepare teachers to teach at higher levels of cognition.

CONCLUSION

These findings brought to light varied information by group and type of program which has implications for practitioners, adult teacher trainers, and program planners in adult education. The intended levels of cognition of the teachers studied tended to average at the application level. The teachers tended to actually deliver instruction at higher levels of cognition than they had planned, however, and were often at the analysis or synthesis levels. Teachers who had received formal training in andragogy tended to intend to teach at lower levels of cognition than those without such training, but actually delivered instruction at higher levels of cognition. Less experienced teachers intended and actually delivered instruction at higher levels of cognition than teachers with more experience.

Application of these findings will have implications for the group studied and perhaps may be indicative of, or generalizable to, other adult education programs and teachers. If so, then teachers need to adjust the level of cognition of objectives, methods of teaching and evaluation methods used in their instructional programs to accommodate higher levels of cognition. Findings would indicate that more experienced teachers may become less concerned with preparing for and actually teaching; thus, resulting in less higher level cognitive activities. Although one could not prescribe an ideal level of cognitive activity for a given lesson topic, the results seem to indicate that higher levels of cognition should be planned for and included in the actual teaching methods. To ameliorate this situation, inservice activities should be considered to affect the necessary changes.

Those who prepare teachers of adults through preservice and inservice education should also be cognizant of these results because teachers with such preparation planned for lower levels of cognition than those without such preparation. One might argue, however, that these might be more realistic objectives for a given audience. Almost no actual instruction was delivered at the evaluation and very little at the synthesis level. These results would imply that the cognitive abilities developed through the adult education programs were less than those needed in the current work place. Henderson (1988) noted that adult education programs in agriculture must use the technical content to develop problem solving and critical thinking abilities in participants, but these results do not provide evidence that adult educators are adequately attempting to develop higher order cognition.

Teacher educators and program administrators would do well to begin to assess their preservice and inservice programs related to teaching for higher level cognition. More is being learned all the time from cognitive psychology which can be applied to adult and education and help prepared a more "learned" adult ready to solve problems of the real world and add to our theoretical bases.

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AN ETHNOGRAPHIC ACTION RESEARCH STUDY: UNDERGRADUATE ADULT LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVE ON THE LEARNING PROCESS

Beth N. Pike, Ed.D.

ABSTRACT

As learning processes were combined with content, small groups of adult learners were observed by their instructor in an undergraduate Education course at the University of Missouri-St. Louis. The investigator began the qualitative study with four foreshadowing issues: 1) By participating in learning activities, what could the individuals discover about themselves, authority relationships, and the complex team learning process (Knowles, 1975) in a nonauthoritarian learning situation? (Lindeman, 1926a)? 2) What competencies should adult learners acquire in order to generate practical meaning from theoretical course information (Schon, 3) How could some cognitive dissonance of participants be resolved while practicing a planned learning model that differed from more traditional instructional models encouraged within the institutional environment (Festinger, 1957; Perry, 1977)? 4) What classroom processes impede or enable the instructor to use consistently person-centered instructional techniques while addressing the mission of the university? These tentative guidelines emerged from the study: 1) Self-critical reflective facilitation will enable learners to become more proactive and responsible learners; 2) A comprehensive and collaborative peer evaluation process has a supportive and transformative influence upon learning processes; 3) Institutional constraints can function as constructive components of the professional development process of the investigator; and, 4) Many proactive classroom leadership competencies emerge during evolving team learning processes. Implications for further research are suggested.

INTRODUCTION

Adults experience unique learning processes when the instructor's intent is to help them become more responsible for learning how to learn in a student-centered environment" was the latent agenda of this inductive inquiry. Although many adult learners shared information easily with the instructor and peers when interactive exercises were combined with some lecture, others were more passive even when the group was divided into small heterogeneous problem-solving subunits or learning teams. The learners near the end of the semester, however, who reported some discomfort during the beginning phases of the semester, mentioned some personal satisfaction, a sense of unexpected academic accomplishment, and a desire to repeat the cooperative experience.

This systematic learning process or learning system, described in adult education literature (Mezirow, 1985; Perry, 1977; Smith, R., 1982), was observed in sections of an undergraduate education course. The course was taught three years at the University of Missouri-St. Louis by the investigator of this study.

SUMMARY OF THE PROBLEM

While studies of the process of individual change in the adult education literature have been based on graduates, respondents for this study were undergraduates of an education course entitled Educational Foundations. The School in Contemporary Society. The problem of the study was as follows: How may the adult participants gain long-term benefit from the instruction of theoretical information within the institutional context?

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

For three years, teams of adult learners were observed in sections of Educational Foundations 111 by this investigator at a midwestern public university. The team was defined as a unit of four to six learners organized to prepare a collaborative presentation from an instructor-approved topic listed in the planned course syllabus. Each semester these task-oriented teams interacted regularly and directly within three sections of classrooms of about forty members each (Homans, 1950).

The team units were organized on a heterogeneous basis since the instructor encouraged the individuals to choose a presentation team in accordance with an interest in content topic. As a result, each small group was composed of a range of academic, ethnic, and socioeconomic commonalities and differences.

Most individuals enrolled at the university were referred to as "traditional" learners, in contrast to the more developmentally mature and experienced "nontraditional" individuals who were often employed. Historically, the majority of adults in this course have been female.

FORESHADOWING ISSUES

The instructor grounded the qualitative study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) with the following foreshadowing issues: First, by participating in learning activities, what could the individuals discover about themselves, authority relationships, and the complex team learning process (Knowles, 1975) in a nonauthoritarian learning situation (Lindeman, 1926a)? Then, what competencies should adult learners acquire in order to generate practical meaning from theoretical course information (Schon, 1987)? Thirdly, how could some cognitive dissonance of participants be resolved while practicing a planned learning model that differed from more traditional instructional models encouraged with the institutional environment (Festinger, 1957; Perry, 1977)? Finally, what classroom interactions and relationships either impede or enable the instructor to use consistently person-centered instructional learning techniques while addressing the academic mission of the university (Schon, 1987).

BRIEF REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Adult education, human resource development, and popular literature indicate rapid technological change in contemporary American society (Lindeman, 1926a; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Toffler, 1990) would require individuals to learn how to become more self-directed. Proactive learners may retain more than those who are reactive, and adults' experiences provide a catalyst for collaborative learning (Knowles, 1975; Smith, R., 1982). Some productive consequences of collaborative learning are:

> ...enhanced motivation for learning, increased feelings of self-worth, an enlarged capacity to solve problems, increased ability to accept and help others, an improved ability to communicate verbally and nonverbally with others, and an increased independence from the instructor or facilitator (Long, 1983, p. 239).

Knowles (1984, p. 28) maintains "experience is the adult learner's living textbook." Merriam (1984) asserts the practitioner should plan learning situations with consideration for adults' developmental life-span needs. While Mezirow (1985) believes dialogue and reflection are productive learning competencies, Mills (1959, p. 196) considers an examination of life experiences in written format to be important adult "intellectual work." Control theorist, Glasser (1986) affirms adults can accomplish more in the planned learning situation when their need for support and interest in others is addressed. Glasser recommends,

> To get the depth that is necessary for many more of them to make the vital relationship between knowledge and power, they need a chance to work on long-term projects with others (p. 72).

Jarvis (1985) is one of numerous educators who concludes the practice of adult learning theory differs from a more traditional teaching methodology. Instead of being taught, the individuals, according to Perry (1977, p. 119), may "discover" with a "disciplined independence of mind." The planned learning experience should be informal and nonauthoritarian, stipulates Brookfield (1987). Daloz (1986) indicates the instructor and adult learner prefer to learn within a context of freedom and trust. Henschke (1987) recommends that instructors of adults develop enthusiasm, patience to learn collaboratively, and genuineness, as well as a willingness to admit mistakes.

SYNOPSIS OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research theories of educational ethnography and action science guided this study (Smith, L. M., 1982). This approach was related to the instructor's experience with the daily classroom team learning situation. The data gathering and analysis processes that were "participative, cooperative, and experiential" (Lincoln, 1990, p. 287) were parallel to listening to needs of learners. Action science theory was included because of the assumption that adult learners have the ability to transform or create knowledge rather than receive information in a more "person as object" mode (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 24). The purpose of using this inductive research methodology was to generate or construct practical, useful tentative miniature theory in contrast with the process strategies of the positivistic research paradigm that verifies hypotheses (Elliott, 1988). In other words, the investigator sought to be a person patiently collecting impressions about real things" (Peters, 1985, p. 297).

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The investigator, as participant observer, completed the following' "operations within the context of the respondents' informed consent: 1) grounded the inquiry with foreshadowing issues; 2) recorded handwritten notes of interpersonal conversations that developed inside small teams of six to eight individuals, for a three year period of time, within the environment of a regular undergraduate university classroom (Smith, L. M.,1982); 3), collected the content of over six hundred anonymous learning journals containing individuals' impressions of the planned learning situation; 4) recording content of formal interviews with students; 5) examined systematically the range of data collected in a search for patterns or categories of problems (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Smith, L. M.,1982); and, 6) constructed tentative miniature theory to form a basis for understanding some barriers to planned team learning. The thematic analysis of data and development of guidelines will be a basis of another set of foreshadowing issues for new cycle of inquiry.

CATEGORIES OF ANALYSIS

The investigator abstracted three fields of descriptive data from transcripts of the varied interviews and the wide range of journals: Classroom issues and worries, professional development issues and worries, and patterns of resolution. The data were further divided into categories for the generation of hypotheses and tentative miniature theories so that the process of helping adults learn within the planned learning environment could be refined. The interrelated miniature theories included general consequences of classroom learning activity. An analysis of the miniature theories indicated the diverse, interactive participants collaborated to generate substantive accomplishments within the institutional environment. Their numerous creative accomplishments had an impact upon their own classroom as well as future sections instructed by the investigator.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FINDINGS

The investigator constructed a set of generalizations about the adults' learning experiences as a basis for understanding barriers to team interactions:

1. Self-critical reflective facilitation will guide learners to become more proactive and responsible learners. This process must be constantly refined if collaborative learning processes are to be successful. With the discovery that some undergrad learners are not developmentally ready for self-critical reflection, the facilitator must become responsible for gaining the competence to practice and model the process.

2. A comprehensive and collaborative peer evaluation process has a supportive and transformative influence upon learning processes. The ability to identify, plan, and present information to peers enlarges the participants' capacity to self-evaluate as well as provide constructive criticism to others. The team process competencies of negotiation, practical application of theoretical information, presentation consistent with the planned situation, and attention to time constraints are enhanced.

3. Institutional constraints can function as constructive components of the professional development process of the investigator. Confronting the pressures to conform to more traditional institutional requirements with reflective and articulate assertiveness can strengthen the practitioner's resolve to maintain and enlarge the vision of linking adult learning theory with daily practice on a consistent basis.

4. Many proactive classroom leadership competencies emerge during evolving team learning processes. No clear understanding emerged as to category of individuals most likely to develop a strong stance of responsibility within the teams. However, the safety of the team learning situation provides opportunities for unexpected leaders to surface. Many competent team leaders are those who function as followers during larger classroom activities.

HOW THE STUDY RELATES TO ADULT LEARNING THEORY

How an instructor approaches a learning situation is critical in setting the learning climate within the university classroom. It was the intent of the instructor to avoid succumbing to pressure to transmit a mass of content information with the use of a more traditional teaching methodology favored by the institution. While the instructor was aware some critics viewed the learner-centered approach to be unsystematic and reductionist (Apps, 1979), the instructor believed some practice-oriented social, vocational, and personal experiences of the individuals were not only being ignored, but could not be quantitatively studied. The instructor wanted to enable other adults to learn how to become or advance as self-starters in the planned learning process.

This research study challenges the traditional teaching methodologies commonly implemented in the public university, particularly with regard to undergraduate adults. A new study will further develop the analysis of team interactions that focus upon reduction of inhibiting forces within the planned learning situation. This can be accomplished if the adult education practitioner carefully plans and refines additional collaborative opportunities for critiquing planned learning situations and accomplishments. Parallel with a recommendation from Houle (1980), the practitioner should encourage the institution to become more accepting of person-centered learning models rather than succumbing to or adapting to more traditional processes. The investigator learned that developing this leadership stance can have a neutralizing effect upon complex vocal pressures to avoid conflict.

APPLICATION OF THE RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Implications of this study propose that the educator of adults maintain a focus on improving learning processes for undergraduate adults by using, on a consistent daily basis, a learner-centered instructional methodology. This will involve more open-ended investigations into individual and team learning processes as well as professional development issues confronting the atypical research practitioner. There must be willingness on the part of the practitioner to openly confront potentially destructive political barriers within the institution in order to further develop and refine planned learning processes. This operation can encourage the practitioner to not only further the development of other individuals, but will strengthen the practitioner's resolve to practice an instructional methodology that is more congruent with beliefs about how adults learn. This qualitative study challenges instructors of adults to continue to plan and refine a learning environment within the organization that encourages and empowers the practitioner as well as other adult learners.

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INFORMAL AND INCIDENTAL LEARNING IN COMMUNITY PROBLEM SOLVING

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ABSTRACT

In this era of participatory democracy, where militancy and protest are sometimes the only way citizens can gain political attention, education for citizenship is being replaced by informal learning for action. This study analyzed the educational strategy of a community action group in its bid to increase public awareness of problems resulting from council decisions of which the community knew little, and about which local citizens had not been consulted. Six main educational strategies were found to contribute to the success of the awareness-raising process, leading council members to re-think their decision, and leading the electorate to almost completely replace incumbent councilors at the next municipal election.

INTRODUCTION

Many communities today feel their voices are no longer being heard by the politicians elected to represent them. People are frustrated by the way governments at all levels fail to consult, or even listen to, the electorate, often assuming the attitude that the population at large does not know what is best for it. Dealings 'behind closed doors' to which the electorate has no access, are only discovered when it is too late and decisions have been made, ostensibly on behalf of the community, but with which the community does not agree. Consequently, grass-roots action groups spring up rapidly, once word gets around that 'something's up', to increase public awareness of contentious issues. The aims of such groups are twofold: firstly to inform others that an unpopular decision is about to be implemented without their knowledge or consent, and secondly, for the now-informed electorate to put pressure on incumbent politicians to alter or reverse such decisions.

The focus of this paper is the education campaign used by a community action group to bring attention to two unpopular plans which the local council was about to approve. The first plan was to permit high density housing on good arable farmland, while the second plan involved the use of marshland for golf courses. This marshland around Boundary Bay, in British Columbia, is very important to huge flocks of waterfowl migrating along the Pacific Flyway, which stretches the length of North and South America (Taylor, 1993).

THE PROBLEM

Only 4% of British Columbia is suitable for arable farming, and in the early 1970s an Agricultural Land Reserve was established to prevent speculative holding of such land until it could be sold for many times its value to developers. In the case at Boundary Bay, deals appeared to be done behind the scenes between council and developers enabling the removal of land from the Reserve for development. At the same time the definition of farm land was being changed to include golf courses, which had not been the original intent. Golf courses were to be situated not only on farmland, but also on marshes which would be drained and landscaped, thus removing habitat used extensively by migrating birds. In addition, there is an abundant resident population of hawks, herons, owls and bald eagles, which depend on the Boundary Bay tidal mudflats for food, as well as on the small mammals inhabiting the dykes, marshes and uncultivated uplands which were now in danger of disappearing.

Once residents of the area heard of the plans through the grapevine there was widespread 'new' attitudes, because dissatisfaction with the way council seemed to be overstepping its mandate, and many special interest action groups arose to protect homeowners, herons, the Fraser River delta, of which Boundary Bay is a part, and the local ecosystem as a whole. Before long it was recognized that there was much overlap of personnel, as many people belonged to more than one group, and an overlap of effort, using a great deal of personal energy, which might perhaps be more effective if shared. Thus a coalition of many small groups was formed under the auspices of the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee, which invited representatives from all the small groups to attend. The aim was to share tactics and techniques for educating the public and the

politicians, pool resources and co-ordinate efforts to reverse council's readiness to approve both the housing development permit and the application for eighteen golf courses without an environmental study or public consultation.

METHOD

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven members of the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee to discover how they planned and carried out their education program, and with ten members of the public to discover which, if any, of the strategies mentioned by the community action group had the most impact on them, or whether their information came from entirely different sources. As interviewing progressed it became evident that the local media-the twice-weekly newspaper and the community television station-also played important roles in the dissemination of information, so a representative from each of these two media was also interviewed. Members of the Conservation Committee were chosen using the snowball method of selection, while the general public were selected from those who wrote letters to the local press. In a limited research project it is particularly difficult to contact less-committed members of the public since their names are not known from any mailing or membership lists.

Interviews were transcribed immediately in order that questions arising from one interview could perhaps be clarified in the next, or a different perspective be obtained on the same event. Once all transcripts were available, categorization and coding occurred, which brought out six main findings upon which the success of the educational campaign depended. Data were triangulated through media reports, newspaper and magazine articles, personal correspondence, and reports and briefs presented to council during public hearings.

FINDINGS

Increasing public awareness of the issue was successful because of the informal and incidental learning taking place throughout the community as a result of six main strategies used by members of the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee. These were:

Saturation of key areas with information
Getting people involved
Using multi-faceted educational strategies
Maximizing or creating vested (personal) interests
Taking advantage of the unexpected
Taking advantage of socio-cultural trends (the time is right)

SATURATION OF KEY AREAS WITH INFORMATION. Efforts were made by the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee to ensure that nearly everyone in the locality read or heard about the problem. Pamphlets and flyers were distributed to every household, and posters were placed around town in high traffic areas where they would be seen. Many residents commute daily to Vancouver, and only have access to the freeway by two intersections, where the Committee placed informational placards and held demonstrations during morning and evening rush hours. Neighbors made sure that newcomers were informed of the current position, and one of the two local newspapers covered media events, published letters to the editor, and carried regular reports of public hearings before council which are part of the democratic process. These hearings became the focal point of discussion in the community during one entire summer, as they were controversial in many ways.

GETTING PEOPLE INVOLVED. Those attending meetings or other events organized by the Conservation Committee were invited to put their name on a list, so they could be contacted to help in whatever way was needed. A telephone tree was formed, with one person responsible for phoning five others, to pass along information, advise people of meetings, hearings or other events requiring a high turn-out, contact resource people or request help with the educational events planned. Involving many people helps spread the work load, and creates within each of those who are involved a personal interest in obtaining the outcome towards which they are all working. Often volunteers became involved after their own awareness had been raised by saturation of the area with information which they could not ignore. By getting people involved,

information networks are created along which news travels quickly, so it was almost impossible for most residents not to know what was going on.

USING MULTI-FACETED EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES. The target audience was the whole community-those whose future would be affected by the housing development, should it take place, and the loss of habitat for wildlife if the golf courses proceeded as council planned. Thus learning opportunities had to reach young and old, newcomers and long-time residents, retired people and business commuters. There were the usual meetings and open-house displays, where questions could be asked, and resource people were available. Many photocopied articles from the press were used for informational handouts at these meetings, and it was from those who attended that a list of contacts was drawn up.

Because informal and incidental learning often take place secondarily to participating in an event which is fun (Cann & Mannings, 1987; Rossing, 1991), many on-site workshops were organized to encourage people to visit local areas which perhaps they had taken for granted. There were bird identification workshops, and 'mud walks' out into the Bay at low tide to discover what creatures lived there and how they played their part in the food chain for migrating and resident birds. Everything in the ecosystem was related holistically - to destroy the uncultivated uplands would reduce the population of certain small mammals upon which many birds of prey relied; the reduction of farmland would remove some of the old fields which were deliberately left for geese to graze, and a sudden increase in the local human population would increase congestion on the roads, cause more pollution, and perhaps bring big-city social problems to a predominantly quiet rural area.

The main educational aim of the Conservation Committee was to bring the local population out of its laissez-faire attitude towards what might happen in the area, and at the same time change the attitude of incumbent councilors from one of paternalistic arrogance to one of consultation with the electorate to whom they were accountable. Attitude changes require time, persistence and patience, some of which were in short supply in this issue. However, there were two specific segments of the population to whom the awareness-raising was directed. Children are particularly good at absorbing 'new' attitudes, because they do not yet have deeply entrenched value systems of their own. Much work is being done in schools and elsewhere encouraging children to adopt ecological attitudes that their parents may not yet have wholly espoused, but may tacitly acknowledge, and help their parents to actively change their old ideas for new. Childhood memories can be great motivators for creating vested interests within the adult. Learning through the senses as a child can create memories which last a lifetime (Finger, 1989). Retired people, too, are becoming much more politically active (Boggs, 1992), and many belonged to various action groups which sprang up in Boundary Bay. They are well-educated professionals, able to provide valuable expertise in many areas, who have time to research background information which is not easily available with regard to the issue at hand. They know their neighbors perhaps better than those who still commute to the city daily, and they have time to offer help where and when it is needed.

The multi-faceted educational strategies therefore aimed to attract the many different segments of the population, creating informal and incidental learning opportunities through social events, fund raisers and community celebrations, (Cann & Mannings, 1987) as small victories were won while the battle continued to rage.

MAXIMIZING OR CREATING VESTED INTERESTS. When people learn about an issue, the outcome of which will affect them personally, they are often prepared to put a lot of time and energy into obtaining a solution which they see as meeting their personal needs. Therefore if, by educational means, individuals can be encouraged to feel personally involved in the issue for whatever reason, they will have a motive to remain involved until the matter has been satisfactorily resolved. Such involvement often results in encouraging others to share the same concerns and interests, passing on knowledge and information through casual conversation (Durrance, 1980). These verbal exchanges serve to diffuse knowledge throughout the community, while also re-affirming within the speaker his or her own views, values and beliefs (Hovland, Janis & Kelley,

1973). People who feel 'ownership' of a concept will be very active in bringing about personal or community harmony by satisfactory resolution of the conflict.

TAKING ADVANTAGE OF THE UNEXPECTED. Informal and incidental learning opportunities can occur anywhere, at any time (Cann, 1984), and can provide ideal 'teachable moments'. An unexpected turn of conversation, perhaps arising 'out of the blue' in an unlikely location, can provide a chance for creating an instant learning situation and it is often these chance encounters that have the most impact, on later reflection.

Research into the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee's educational strategies determined that unplanned and unexpected events provided valuable learning opportunities for the community in general, which the Committee could use to their advantage. Because the controversial application for high-density housing on land within the Agricultural Land Reserve required a new rezoning by-law, there had to be public hearings as part of the political process. This was the first occasion on which the public had any say in the matter, not having been consulted by council previously, and there having been no environmental studies on the possible impacts either. Because of the way in which the community had been kept in the dark about council's almost certain approval of this development permit, citizens were not just angry, they were furious, and ready to take whatever action was necessary to ensure that council did not succeed.

The public hearing, which became the longest in Canadian history, provided the opportunity for representatives from all the action groups, coordinated by the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee, to present written and oral briefs, with private citizens also participating in great numbers. Feelings were running high-the whole notion of democracy was being questioned, and the politically astute electorate was not about to let council dictate policy to them this way. Every evening for three months presentations were made to council, almost all of which were anti-development. Community television aired the hearings live, nightly, and watching became more compelling than any soap opera. Because citizens were anxious to learn as much as possible about the problem, and be a big part of the solution, those who were able attended the hearings in person, while others watched on television. Evidence of the impact created by televising the hearings was that the topic of conversation on the bus or the street corner next morning was inevitably what happened in council the previous night.

Council's actions, according to respondents interviewed, became more astonishing and less democratic nightly, so the community found themselves getting even angrier than before, and having to learn tactics to counteract council's apparent unwillingness to listen, or even play the game by recognized rules, as the hearings progressed. Finally, because council insisted that they were only hearing from a whining minority, and that the silent majority were really on their side, despite the fact that almost every presentation repeated the same message, the community organized an unofficial citizens' referendum in order to give the silent majority a chance to speak. This was held in the same way as any official referendum, overseen by judges and lawyers, with impeccable attention to detail so there could be no recriminations afterwards. Voter turnout was higher than for any municipal election to date, and results showed that 94% of those who voted were against council's proposed rubber-stamping of the development permits. The politicians learned that day was that there was no silent majority. The community's anger and frustration with their politicians was then transformed into political action when groups created for the purpose supported a slate of environmentally-friendly candidates at the next civic election. This slate was duly elected, and replaced all but one of the previous incumbents.

TAKING ADVANTAGE OF SOCIO-CULTURAL TRENDS. (The time is right). At first, most of the briefs presented to council opposing rapid housing development put forward individual reasons for that view-an intolerable increase in commuter traffic on already congested freeways; loss of quality of life when a rural area becomes urbanized; rise in property taxes; and a possible increase in crime and social problems associated with city life. But late one evening a member of the Boundary Bay Conservation Committee raised a plea for conservation of the ecosystem because that, in itself, was of inestimable value not only to local residents for the amenities it provided them personally, but for the wildlife it supported which also had a right to a feeding ground and over-

wintering habitat which had been part of the Pacific Flyway for millennia. Because of the late hour at which this presentation was made, the media had gone home, so this new twist of appealing for the good of the commons rather than the good of the individual went almost unnoticed. However, early next evening another such brief was submitted. The media immediately wanted to elaborate on the idea, and within the community this concern for the environment in general soon became the cause celebre.

Environmentally responsible attitudes have been simmering below the surface for many years. They have been tacitly, if not openly, acknowledged as the radical hippie movement of thirty years ago became the less radical back-to-the-earth movement more recently, and has finally become mainstream, being acknowledged by politicians and the establishment as an important issue. If Senge (1990) is correct, once a seemingly radical idea is accepted by a certain proportion of the population, its onward diffusion gains momentum and becomes unstoppable as that idea is accepted tacitly or overtly by the community at large. Environmentally, the 'time is right' for acceptance of ideas requiring a change of attitude and even a change of lifestyle to support that attitude, certainly in developed countries where there is the luxury of choice. An idea whose time has not yet come will inevitably be rejected, because not enough people are ready to support it.

CONCLUSION

Informal and incidental learning opportunities can be planned, organized and systematically carried out in the same way as more formal educational processes. However, outcomes and objectives can be planned and attained in the latter situation, whereas even the most carefully planned informal and incidental learning situations may or may not achieve their desired results because so much depends on the mood, outlook or circumstance of the target audience. Informal and incidental learning usually occurs secondarily to participating in or completion of some other task, and may be at a tacit level and therefore unacknowledged.

Saturating an area with information will mean that eventually almost everyone is aware of the specific issue being addressed, even if particular attention is not being paid by the learner to the matter. Two or more pieces of information, gathered incidentally, may then be catalyzed into something particularly meaningful to that individual, creating knowledge rather than unrelated bits of information. In this realm of tacit and informal learning no-one knows what will act as a catalyst for whom, thus the need to present information in a great variety of ways. This increase in learning may then propel people to action, getting involved in whatever way they can, working towards achieving the result which is in their personal best interest. If the time is right, where the end result of the learning campaign is a change of attitude, the bandwagon which has been set rolling gradually picks up speed until the new attitude becomes 'the' thing to acknowledge and put into practice. Changing attitudes requires knowledge combined with active involvement (Martin, 1988) and thus informal and incidental learning opportunities as created by community action groups are very important cognitively, experientially and affectively. People absorb attitudes from their peers, they either lead in modeling the new way of thinking in their personal lives, or they follow shortly after as new ideas become the accepted thing within their social setting. Learning this way is holistic, meaningful, often unnoticed, and can result from participating in almost any activity in daily life.

IMPLICATIONS

At present there is discussion regarding the re-introduction of learning skills by apprenticeships, working alongside qualified craftspeople, learning affectively by watching, listening, feeling, thinking, and doing-learning those common sense things which cannot be described in a book-knowing when something is right by intuition (Fensham, 1992). Learning through role-modeling is important in changing attitudes, along with social marketing of the new idea (Hastings & Haywood, 1991), using persuasive communications to get the message across to the target audience (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1973), whether that be a small community or the entire country. As the industrial era melts into the information age attitudes must change towards the need for re-skilling, lifelong learning and constant flexibility to adjust to new and rapidly changing situations, so must there also be a great deal more divergent thinking. People are seemingly so reluctant to think

divergently, or to adopt new attitudes, that much informal and incidental learning needs to occur before present 'radical' attitudes towards solutions for some of these problems become mainstream and are accepted as workable alternatives to the present system.

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